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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

This has certainly been a more than usually eventful session. Sessions are usually entirely uneventful, leaving the world outside the House as it was before, except for being a little bored. But this year a new policy has appeared, whose least important result will be the breaking up of parties. For good or for evil all of us will feel the effect of the tariff revolution. It is a matter for the Empire, and only quite secondarily for Parliament. Then two measures have been passed into law which may be counted on to produce visible results, the Irish Land Bill, and the London Education Bill. So that on the whole the Government may be satisfied with itself. In spite of the tariff hurly-burly, Free Food Leagues, and Passive Resisters, we should say the Government were stronger to-day than at the beginning of the session, when it seemed considerably more than possible that it might break up before the end. Spontaneous decay is more dangerous than external attack.

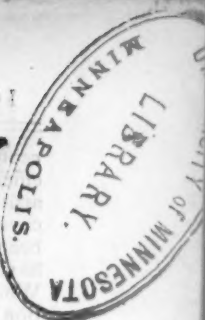
Personally Mr. Wyndham has been the man of the session. This does not impinge on Mr. Chamberlain being the man of the day, which friends and foes alike will admit that he is; but his theatre of operations this year has not especially been the House of Commons. His work will lie in the country for some time yet. Mr. Wyndham on the other hand has been protagonist, legislatively at least, in the Commons during the whole session. No one can doubt that he stands on a higher political plane altogether than he did before his successful piloting through the House of the Irish Land Bill. Mr. Balfour has had a difficult dialectical task in parrying the thrusts at his Inquiry; but those who have "taken him on" have had little reason to congratulate themselves. We should have thought the Opposition could make a great deal more out of the ministerial differences than they have done. They are more cheerful than they were, but paralysis still seems to afflict their performance. Of the younger men Lord Percy has made some good speeches, and Lord Hugh Cecil grows in influence. Without him the free-trade Unionists need not be taken very seriously. The House of Lords has had some good debates, but on

the whole we cannot think it has played nearly so big a part in the session as it ought to have done.

The House of Commons is fortunate in its servants. Mr. Pike, the retiring postmaster, to whom a testimonial was given on Thursday, is an instance in point. It does speak well for the House that its officials should bring such a zeal and pride to their work, and should enter into the spirit of the thing in the way they do. One reason for the good service no doubt is the admirable supervision of Mr. Erskine and Mr. Gosset: another is the feeling of friendliness and good understanding between master and man. An absolutely sure sign of good breeding is courtesy towards inferiors in station or rank: and happily the House has many members who know how to behave in this respect. Hence the camaraderie between members of the House and paid servants, which is so noticeable.

Lord Lansdowne and Mr. Balfour's statements on Thursday were inevitably pessimistic in tone. Indeed the Government has never spoken with any degree of hopefulness on the Balkan question, nor has any policy more definite than a postponement of the evil been attempted. Since the murder of the Russian Consul at Monastir the turmoil throughout the country has steadily increased, though the actual murder, committed by a Turk, was in no way an act significant of the causes of revolution. Outbursts of rioting are reported throughout the Balkans. Dynamite has been freely used at Krushivo; outbreaks of arson are reported from Salonika, and a large body of Bulgarians has been defeated by the Turks at Sorovitch; the revolutionary flag, whatever that may mean, is said to have been raised, and the Turkish troops, which are in great force, have been engaged. But a good deal of the telegraphed news is as little true as the imputation respecting criminality; and both seem to be affected by individual political or religious bias. At the other extreme is Lord Lansdowne's significant announcement that the Russo-Austrian scheme of reform is unfortunately being checked by the activity of the revolutionary bands.

This implied confidence in the correctness of the Sultan's attitude is a welcome sign that the Government is free from the old Gladstonian prejudices. It has been freely suggested that Turkey is a direct instigator of the revolt, as if it were the Sultan's policy to hurry his own dissolution. There have been



centuries of misrule and the Turks have been most inefficient administrators; but in the present crisis the attitude of the Turkish Government has been beyond cavil and no account of even pretended authenticity has been published which tends to show that Turkish troops have committed unprompted and barbarous excesses. What with the grandmotherly and ineffective co-operation of Russia and Austria and the sensitive watchfulness of Europe it is hard to see how the Turk can expect to cope in any way with countries that have lived for generations on conspiracy, and where religious hatred has been persistently fostered. The continued absence of Prince Ferdinand from Sofia may mean that he considers this culmination of lawlessness to exceed the control of a ruler; and the crisis may as well come now as later. Though from different motives, it is the avowed intention of both sections of revolutionists to force European intervention, and since European sentiment and Russian policy object to the simple plan of giving the Sultan leave to manage his own affairs, their solution may be the only alternative left.

The ukase published at S. Petersburg on Thursday may or may not be a result of the meeting at Port Arthur. Certainly it is a marked, even an audacious, avowal of Russian policy in the Far East. The province of Amur and the Kwantung districts are made a viceroyalty, and Vice-Admiral Alexeieff, the first viceroy, is given autocratic powers of astonishing range. He is general, admiral, administrator, and endowed almost with plenipotentiary powers. Nor is his jurisdiction restricted to his viceroyalty proper. He is instructed to keep order and to look after the interests of Russian subjects in the territories bordering on his possessions, among which Manchuria is included under the description of the "districts traversed by the Eastern Chinese Railway". The new viceroyalty covers ground which has been leased from China for a period of years; it adjoins territory which by a solemn covenant was to have been restored to China last April. Was it decided at Port Arthur that the new autocrat should convert both the leasehold and the borrowed province on his borders into a Russian freehold? Russia has at least made one definite step. It is the occasion for us and other nations, if the step is to be acknowledged, to make the refusal of the next equally definite.

A full and judicial account of the Kischineff massacres has been received from the British Consul. He discusses fully the causes as well as the details of the massacre. Of the savagery of the outbreak, in which between forty and fifty Jews were killed, there can be no question; and the press had been guilty of a continuous course of incitement against the Jews. Perhaps the authorities were guilty to the extent that no repression of this anti-Semitic language had been suggested; and it may be that the then Governor was himself known to be a virulent anti-Semite. But the fact that no weapons were used, but only such implements as were found on the spot, goes to show that the massacre was not organised in any way; and after the deed, both by the removal of the Governor and by the quick trial and punishment of the offenders, the authorities have done what they could. This envious and persistent hatred of the Jews has always been a thing deeper than politics and certainly the Russian Government has as little reason to welcome its indulgence as the Turkish Government to prompt revolution in Macedonia.

Lord George Hamilton's Indian Budget statement on Thursday contained little that was not already known as to the finances of the Peninsula. The withdrawal, in response to the views of Lord Curzon and Lord Kitchener, of the proposal to charge India with part of the cost of the South African garrison, and the loss which the little knot of politicians whose chief delight is to disparage their own country have sustained in Mr. W. S. Caine and Sir William Wedderburn combined to rob the debate of the moderate amount of energy which the statement of India's grievances always generates. India, as a matter of fact, has comparatively little to complain of. Realised and anticipated

surpluses enable the Government to make remission of 25 per cent. on the salt tax and to advance the incomes exempted from taxation from 500 rupees to 1,000. The strong position of Indian finances is shown by the fact that, while the public debt amounts to £322,000,000, her assets, in the shape of remunerative public works and of debts due to her, amount to £301,000,000, leaving uncovered only £21,000,000 sterling, which is little more than one-third of a single year's revenue.

The secret of India's prosperity is easily discovered, and ought not to be without its lesson for fiscal students at home. India has prospered ever since her Government refused to allow monetary and commercial conditions to be controlled by fidelity to economic theories which were gradually working her ruin. The fixing of a ratio of exchange between gold and silver, and the duties levied on cotton manufactures have enabled India to enjoy to the full the relief in military expenditure on the troops sent to China and South Africa on behalf of the Imperial Government, and the benefit of fairly good trade years. The sufficient answer to the proposal to abolish the duties on cotton goods is that India cannot afford the loss of revenue. The most encouraging feature in the survey is that famine has practically disappeared. Some trace of agricultural depression will probably be always found in some corner or other of an area so great and so diverse in character; but, as Lord George Hamilton explained, scarcity in one part is balanced by plenty in another and the average is maintained. It is curious how little attention is given to the plague, which shows no sign of diminution. The native population accepts it with the passive fortitude of the fatalist, and Government is only now recognising that the people are more excited and terrified by the preventive measures adopted than by the plague itself.

It remained for Lord Spencer of all people to discover a novel reason why the Imperial Government should not pass the Sugar Convention Bill. In Monday's debate in the House of Lords, he naively referred to Lord Lansdowne's revolver and expressed his astonishment that the Government should throw away their ammunition by parting with the chance which German bounties presented for putting on preferential duties. In other words Lord Spencer, not being called upon to discuss the necessity for retaliatory measures as a reason for the fiscal reforms which Mr. Chamberlain advocates, is alive to the possibility in another direction. Lord Spencer's economics are worthy of Sir James Blyth who has distinguished himself this week by a long letter opposing any tax on foodstuffs but advocating what amounts to a bounty on Colonial agriculture. A subsidy for Colonial agriculture would ensure a demand for similar treatment of home agriculture also, and the working man, whose food is not to be taxed on any terms, would be taxed in the interests of a food-producing industry. It would be a mere economic subterfuge. Nor, we imagine, would the self-governing colonies be likely to agree to take any such subsidy.

The activity of Mr. Chamberlain's friends on the Birmingham Tariff Committee is seized by Lord James of Hereford as an excuse for a letter to Lancastrian free-traders. He bids the masters and the operatives remember the days before 1846, as though Great Britain alone had made progress in the interval. Lord James wisely confines himself to generalities; the Birmingham Tariff Committee, more sure of its ground, deals in hard figures. If free imports spell so much prosperity to British industry, how does Lord James account for the fact that whereas between 1890 and 1902 the annual British export of manufactured goods sank in value two-thirds of a million sterling, the imports of manufactured goods, the produce of foreign labour, increased by nearly £36,000,000? If the inquiry brings out a few points such as that Mr. Seddon will not be far wrong in his view that "every well-wisher of the Empire will be staggered" at the discovery of the manner in which the United Kingdom has relatively and positively lost ground. Mr. Seddon's

method of assisting the metropolitan country is unfortunately not quite all that could be desired. He proposed in his Budget speech on Wednesday to put a substantial extra duty on foreign manufactures, leaving it to us to respond if we like. The New Zealand Premier says he takes this step from patriotic motives; but he would serve Mr. Chamberlain's purpose better if he removed part of the duties levied on British manufactures. That would tend to rob the New Zealand tariff of its protective character as against the mother country.

The serenity of the Irish discussions was in no way broken in the debate on the Lords' amendments to the Bill. Mr. John Redmond once relapsed into the older style by stigmatising the amendment as to the mining rights as "crude, unjust and unreasonable"; but the very sensible assessment of value proposed by Mr. Wyndham was accepted without any real opposition and Mr. Healy's fervour more than balanced Mr. John Redmond's outbreak. The one other important amendment was concerned with the sporting rights and in spite of a great deal of talking was accepted with little demur, after Mr. Wyndham had suggested the compromise that in the absence of definite agreement between landlord and tenant the sporting rights should be vested in the Land Commission. The subject has a good deal of real commercial importance. Ireland has been said to have a future as a playground of Empire; and of all players the men who fish and shoot and hunt are most valuable to the country they choose. It would be a real subtraction from local prosperity in Ireland if the moors and lochs were left to individual rapacity, and if hunting were discouraged.

The Papal Coronation followed so speedily on the selection as to leave no time for a literary output on the history and meaning of the rite. Most of the accounts of the ceremony that have appeared in the English Press have made manifest the liturgical ignorance of the scribes concerned. Historically the position of the Pope at the altar and other smaller incidents carry the mind back to pre-medieval days. The Triple Crown is said by liturgiologists to signify the rule of the successor of S. Peter over Christian souls, over the estates of the Church and over princes. For a considerable period however a single Crown sufficed. If in one way the rite seems to extol to the highest point the temporal claims of the Church, from another (witness the ceremony of the burning flax) it is instinct with the deepest Christian humility. The ordeal must have been trying, but the new Pope's bearing has gained from the world an increased respect for the Papacy.

M. Combes' visit to Marseilles was the occasion of some unseemly rioting and more unseemly language. What exactly was the insult meditated against M. Combes' person is not wholly clear; but it seems that the comrade of a drunken Italian threw a tomato with so little skill that he missed the body of the carriage altogether: and when he was pursued by the courageous police he fired two shots from a revolver. The display irritated M. Combes into a more venomous expression of hostility to the religious orders than he had hitherto phrased. He almost promised that what is called, by strange misuse of the word, his "crusade" will be carried to further lengths and added specifically that "in a little while an end will be put to all education by members of religious bodies". He proposes to substitute "broad ideas likely to make enlightened men", and the measure of the breadth is a renegade's hatred of the creed he has reneged. There is no bigotry like the bigotry of the dogmatic atheists; but it is seldom that the possession of this supreme narrowness is taken, as in M. Combes' case, as the prime qualification for a political leader.

The disaster on the underground electric railway in Paris was terrible both from the number of the killed and the manner of their death. Owing to a failure of the motor one train was arrested and in order to clear the line the train was pushed along the tunnel—it seems at a considerable pace—by the following train. While these two were some distance from the terminus

there was a considerable explosion. Both trains caught fire and a third train, crowded with passengers, pulled up some 300 yards further back. In the panic the occupants of the three trains struggled to escape back through the tunnel but in the darkness and confusion eighty-four were killed, all of them it is said by suffocation. The agitation in Paris has been beyond description and the press is clamouring for a scapegoat. The company had been warned by several associations that the want of air shafts was a serious danger; and this was by no means the first time that cars had caught fire and had been removed in the same hazardous manner. As in the recent disaster at Woolwich an immunity from disasters seems to have created a contempt for the manifest danger. But the extreme deadliness of the smoke, which killed its victims with astonishing quickness, is new to the most experienced. Will a recurrence of such disaster be rendered impossible in London as well as Paris?

The speed limit was not the only concession Mr. Long made in the Motor Cars Bill before it was finally disposed of. In the small hours of last Saturday morning, Mr. Long himself apparently came to the conclusion that the description of the penalties to be imposed as savage was not altogether exaggerated. At any rate, he agreed to eliminate imprisonment for a first offence and to make the term for a second conviction three instead of six months. In its ultimate form therefore the measure, which will come into operation in January next, is much less severe than the Bill as introduced by the Government. It has been robbed of the provision which should have made it immediately deterrent. Yet no new argument was brought to bear, and the modification is a weakness which will neither commend itself to public opinion nor prove of advantage to anyone beyond the few motorists who have little regard for their own necks and less for other people's. The need for some such legislation is shown every day by the cases brought before the magistrates.

The Alien Immigration Commission has reported in unusually good time. Altogether it has done its work well. It has viewed the subject in a broad and comprehensive way and tried to get to the root of the matter. It had the advantage of a legal chairman in Lord James, who had a distinguished lawyer, Mr. Alfred Lyttelton, for a colleague. Without doubt the legal element contributed largely to the minuteness of the report. The Commission is distinctly on the side of those who are in favour of State regulation of alien immigration; recommending that an immigration department be established. The case for regulation may now be said to be proved; and legislation next session is almost certain—to be initiated at least. We trust, as we have no doubt, that the Immigration Reform Association will make the contents of the report widely known.

The fact that Lord Justice Vaughan Williams has taken the same view of the action by the South Wales coalowners against the Miners' Federation as was taken by Mr. Justice Bigham is a proof of the unsatisfactory state of the law as to industrial disputes. We have now two judges against two, yet the decision of the Court of Appeal condemns the Federation in a large amount of damages for acts which two judges hold to be within the law. It is probable that the case will be taken to the House of Lords and we know pretty well by this time that the tendency there is to look at such cases from the point of view of a legislator with certain fixed opinions. It is certainly absurd to treat the council of a trade union as a body distinct from the general body of workmen it represents. For every purpose it is the men themselves and there ought to be no separate action against it. If the men break their contracts, induced thereto by whatever influence, they should be liable; but to give an extra action against a body practically themselves for inducing themselves to break their contracts is not to look at facts as they are. The Federation is not an outside body; it is only the mouthpiece of the men. The false analogy however that the council of a trade union is a third party to disputes between employers and the workmen will be

hugged by the judges and only legislation can put the matter on a correct and sound footing.

Sir Francis Jeune on Monday decided that Mr. Constantinidi was entitled to a decree of divorce although by his own admissions he had been guilty of adultery. It was urged by the respondent and co-respondent that the Court under the Act of 1857 had no power to grant divorce in such a case and that the decisions were all against it. There are precedents in favour of women petitioners who have broken their marriage vows, the Courts holding that they were excused by the conduct of their husbands. Sir Francis Jeune has decided that the Act entitles him to exercise his discretion in the case of men as well as of women and at any rate now it cannot be said that the license is all on the side of women. Sir Francis was very eloquent about the moral effects which may be supposed to follow from a man's knowledge of his wife's unfaithfulness. He has held that it corresponds to the effect produced on a woman by her husband's cruelty or neglect. But his decision introduces a dangerous precedent which we fear will not be without the evil effects which spring from the Divorce Court.

The long and unbroken success of the Yorkshire cricket team had begun to subtract a little from the great popular interest in the County Championship, which is now almost co-extensive with first-class cricket. Happily at the beginning of the season Yorkshire were four times beaten and Middlesex, till this week undefeated, seemed likely to restore to London some of its prestige. It may be that the Yorkshire team, which possesses the two best bowlers and what is perhaps more the best captain in England, may recover their position. According to the odd principle of fixing the order of merit Yorkshire are reckoned as having fifty-two marks and Middlesex as seventy-five; but we shall be surprised to see Middlesex again defeated. The team is greatly strengthened by the two schoolmasters, Mr. J. Douglas and Mr. Wells, who have both begun well; but on wet wickets anything may happen. It will be a welcome return to older conditions if the team with the largest proportion of amateurs should be at the top of the list. Is it the want of amateurs and of a permanent amateur captain that has debased Surrey?

Apart from the dulness of Consols, which were adversely affected by the prospects of dearer money, a much more cheerful tone prevailed in almost all sections of the Stock Exchange this week, principally under the influence of an advance in American Railroad securities. Excepting that there has been a slight depreciation in Turkish issues, the situation in Macedonia is receiving very little attention. The Settlement was accompanied by two failures and in one case the liabilities were fairly heavy. Home Rails generally showed a better tendency with the exception of the Underground group, the stocks of which were sold by investors who are uneasy owing to the terrible disaster on the Metropolitan system in Paris.

The American market has been a decided feature of strength and the general position in New York seems to have become much clearer. Prices advanced sharply on good buying both on London and New York account, and although in many quarters it is considered doubtful whether the rally can be maintained, there now appears to be more confidence in this market than has been in evidence for some time past. Kaffirs presented a firm front during the greater part of the week and rather more business is reported in this section. Yesterday, however, prices were inclined to sag on Sir J. Gordon Sprigg's statement in the Cape House of Assembly to the effect that if Asiatics were introduced energetic steps would be taken to exclude them from Cape Colony. It is of interest to note that the dividends recently declared by South African mining companies represent over a million sterling. The gold output for July was satisfactory, the production being 251,643 ounces as compared with 238,320 ounces in June last and 149,179 ounces in July 1902. Consols 90½. Bank rate 3 per cent. (18 June 1903).

MR. GEORGE WYNDHAM.

LORD ROSEBERY once declared that "a platform was a physical convenience and not a moral elevation". Like most of the phrases from that mint it is a shallow paradox, for the platform is everything in this world, as the case of Mr. George Wyndham, amongst many others, proves. When Mr. Wyndham addressed the House of Commons from the bench behind the Ministers his rhetorical style was voted pompous and elaborate; he was criticised as affected and intellectually thin, and confidently pronounced by his competitors to be a failure. And in truth Mr. George Wyndham, struggling with a sheaf of notes in his left hand, sawing the air with his right, and endeavouring to make a delicate voice rise above the hum of neighbouring chat, was so ineffective that only acute judges saw what was in him, and in store for him. Then the unhappy Farquharson-Gatty scandal contributed at this time to Mr. Wyndham's unpopularity, and it was even whispered that he had quarrelled with his friend and patron, Mr. Arthur Balfour. But these clouds passed away, and Mr. Wyndham was suddenly promoted to be an Under Secretary of State. The transformation effected by his appearance at the table was one of the most complete in the annals of the House of Commons. The old artificiality, the attitudinising, the finicking Gallic style, the over anxiety to strike, which is the commonest cause of failure,—all these faults disappeared; and on the stepping-stone of his dead self Mr. Wyndham climbed easily and rapidly to a parliamentary position admitted to be inferior only to that of two or three statesmen considerably older than himself. All that Mr. Wyndham wanted for the free play of his powers was the space and "moral elevation" of a platform, and that was supplied him by the Treasury bench.

"A saint in crape is twice a saint in lawn."

If high office can confer dignity upon Lord George Hamilton and draw audience for the stumbling sophistries of Mr. Ritchie, its effect upon the reputation of a really first-rate man like Mr. Wyndham need excite no surprise. Not that Mr. Wyndham is dependent, like most Ministers, upon his portfolio for the power which he now wears so gracefully and lightly. Strip him of his office to-morrow and there would still be the note of distinction about all he says and does and writes, which is the sure mark of the accomplished man of letters and the well-bred man of the world. But it was his portfolio that first gave Mr. Wyndham the opportunity of being himself, and of showing to his countrymen what that self is. All who come "sous la baguette du magicien" are more or less subjugated by the charm of manner, which is the almost inevitable fruit of grafting literature upon worldliness. And Mr. Wyndham's tincture of belles lettres is by no means the veneer of the amateur. The edition of "Plutarch's Lives", for which Mr. Wyndham was responsible and to which he wrote a preface, reveals a literary experience, a facility and felicity of handling materials, and a sobriety of judgment only attained by the born scholar. The literary quality comes out of course in his speeches, which are always polished and consecutive,—"*une phrase malagencée répond presque toujours à une pensée inexacte*"—and lit up by wit that is never ill-natured, and verbal effects that are never glaring though bright and pointed. "The policy of the open eye", as applied to the fiscal inquiry, is quite a happy stroke. But while the dullest could hardly miss Mr. Wyndham's social and rhetorical fascination, few suspected until he became Chief Secretary for Ireland that he had the grit and the grip of a statesman of high calibre.

An Under Secretary is always rather a suppressed personality, for obvious reasons. But at the War Office Mr. Wyndham distinguished himself by making no enemies, and he got up his cases for the House of Commons with all the care and accuracy of a sucking barrister, mugging away at his first brief. He stood between the soldier and the civilian, and, for a time at all events, the plague was stayed. He was as conspicuous a success in Pall

Mall as his chief, Lord Lansdowne, was a failure. But it was of course at the Irish Office that Mr. Wyndham's career really opened. It is not our purpose to discuss in this article the principles or the details of the great Irish Land Act, with which Mr. Wyndham has crowned the attempts of the British legislature to settle the agrarian question in Ireland. We have discharged that duty in these columns already, on more than one occasion. A scheme of land purchase framed on such gigantic lines is admittedly an experiment, and opinions will differ as to its chances of success. But at least it is not a mean experiment. If it succeeds in settling the Irish land question Mr. Wyndham will rank among the greatest statesmen of the twentieth century. Its failure, on the other hand, cannot be assured for many years; and when that time arrives, as we hope it never will, Mr. Wyndham or his admirers will be able to explain that "a great deal has happened" since he introduced the measure. At the present hour, however men may argue about the justice or expediency of lending national funds on Irish mortgages, two facts are indisputable. Mr. Wyndham conducted his Bill through the House of Commons with consummate ability: and the temper and attitude of the Irish people and their representatives towards the Saxon conqueror are better than they have ever been before. It would be an exaggeration to ascribe the prosperity and contentment enjoyed by Ireland at present to the Chief Secretary, because most of that well-being is due to physical and extraneous causes. Nor do we care to enter into the question whether the Bill is the Chief Secretary's, or the work of a permanent official, distinguished in India as a Radical reformer. But incontestably the improved relations between the Irish Nationalist members and the Government in the House of Commons, and the much better feeling that has sprung up between the Executive and the people in Ireland, are due to the persuasive personality of the Chief Secretary. Apart from Mr. Chamberlain, who whilst he lives will always be the central figure of British politics, this session has been Mr. Wyndham's. Until Mr. Chamberlain's hand was forced by the folly and obstinacy of Mr. Ritchie, and he was rushed into his fiscal campaign, the Irish Land Bill held the parliamentary field. Mr. Chamberlain's tariff policy of course eclipsed every other subject, and will continue to do so for years to come. But until that declaration was made, Mr. Wyndham was the cynosure of all eyes, and his name was on all men's lips. We should not have written thus much or in this style about Mr. Wyndham if we did not believe him to be the future leader of the Conservative party. Mr. Chamberlain belongs to the generation of Lord Salisbury, Sir Michael Hicks Beach, the generation that, in the course of nature, must shortly pass away. Mr. Arthur Balfour and Lord Rosebery, and Mr. Asquith, represent the generation that is even now succeeding its predecessor. Mr. George Wyndham belongs to a still younger generation, and must be compared with those, who are, more or less, his contemporaries. Two names occur at once as those of his most likely rivals, Mr. Brodrick and Lord Curzon. Mr. Wyndham can, in our judgment, give a good many points to both of them. Mr. Brodrick's sincerest friends must admit that, despite of his sterling virtues of industry, parliamentary courage, and conscientiousness, he is not popular in the House of Commons, a rather insuperable obstacle in the way of a would-be leader of a party. So far from possessing Mr. Wyndham's magnetic attraction, Mr. Brodrick has the unhappy knack of rubbing people up the wrong way. Lord Curzon has in full measure the defects of his qualities. Apart from the fact that in the course of nature he must go to the House of Lords within a measurable distance of time, Lord Curzon is imperious and exacting and, when he was in the House of Commons, perpetually mistook insolence for invective and assertion for argument. These are foibles which a prolonged occupation of the office of Viceroy of India is more likely to encourage than to correct. Indeed, a man would have to be more or less than human to escape the habit of autocracy. An autocrat is the worst possible leader of an English political party: and we have observed that Indian statesmen,

accustomed to the smooth dispatch of the most perfectly organised bureaucracy in the world, are peculiarly impatient of the compromises and ambages necessary for the conduct of business in the House of Commons. On the other hand, nothing seems able to disturb the splendid serenity of Mr. Wyndham's temper, and his fine sense of the necessity of concession. Mr. Austen Chamberlain, it is true, as the heir of his father's prestige, might with his toe press the heel of Mr. Wyndham; but Mr. Wyndham has many strong, if impalpable, aids that Mr. Austen Chamberlain has not. Letters are a great assistance to statesmanship, as the careers of Lord Beaconsfield, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. John Morley demonstrate. We may be putting our money on the wrong horse: that is "an accident of hourly proof". But we back Mr. George Wyndham as the future leader of the Tory party.

THE BALKAN CESSPOOL.

IF a number of "passive resisters" made public announcement that they intended to provoke a riot this day three months, and if on that date they proceeded to set all London in an uproar, we should be justified in condemning the Executive. It has now for a long time been an open secret, penetrated even by such minor prophets as the newspaper correspondents, that a general insurrection would take place in European Turkey after the harvest, and sure enough, murder and outrage, fire and powder and dynamite are now let loose upon the unfortunate vilayets with all the punctuality of an eclipse. Surely someone must be to blame; surely the concentrated wisdom of the civilised world ought to have devised some prophylactic against crimes so cynically adumbrated by the criminals themselves. Anarchy is not even the private concern of the locality where it prevails, for the infection of a political plague-spot is a menace even to healthy neighbours. Europe cannot put Macedonia into quarantine and, as a good physician, must attack the origin of the trouble. If a certain street is constantly subject to typhoid, we do not content ourselves with medicine and whitewash, but see to it that a sanitary inspector explores the drains.

Now the political cesspool of the Balkans is clearly located at Sofia, whence poisonous emanations have long issued. Prince Ferdinand is too shrewd a statesman to approve a hopeless enterprise, but his hand has already been forced to a dangerous extent and he may be compromised irretrievably in his effort to save his throne. As is well known, there are two revolutionary agencies at work in Macedonia: the "exterior", which aims at a Bulgarian annexation, and the "interior", which advocates a new autonomous state. Professor Michailovski was the nominal head of the "exterior" committees, but in point of fact he was merely the instrument of much higher personages. M. Ludskanov, Minister of the Interior, was organising the insurrection with M. Nikolaievic, the head of Prince Ferdinand's household, and General Paprikov, Minister of War, as his coadjutors, and an opéra-bouffe incident occurred when M. Ludskanov, in deference to European opinion, issued solemn proclamations against the very committees, which he was himself actually organising. General Petrov, the present Premier and almost the only gentleman in Bulgaria, has set his face against the fatal policy of the committees and, for a time, with the support of Prince Ferdinand, he seemed strong enough to conduct a sane policy. Of course, like all his compatriots, he desires a Greater Bulgaria, but he knows the military and financial limitations of the peasant state and prefers an understanding with Turkey above subservience to Russia. But M. Sarafov, the reckless leader of the "interior" committees, has already overthrown him once and may easily do so again. The fact is, public opinion, such as it is in Bulgaria, insists upon the disturbance of Macedonia. No doubt public opinion, in Bulgaria as in Serbia, is but a euphemism for the clamours of demagogues, but it is none the less potent for that. The peasants care for nothing but their pigs and their paprika, but as soldiers and voters they are at the beck and call of

professional politicians. The only way to avert a general conflagration in the Balkans is for Europe to act with decision and bind Bulgaria over to keep the peace.

The personality of Boris Sarafov is interesting and typical of the movement he directs. He possesses abundant courage, but when we have said that, we have exhausted his virtues. He doubtless believes in his cause, but that may be said of many miscreants. A master of disguises, an expert in bribery, and a born leader of men, he seems to be at once ubiquitous, invulnerable and irresistible. He has established a reign of terror throughout three vilayets, the majority of whose population desire only to be let alone; he flouts pashas, outwits kaimakams and eludes flying squadrons of zapties; none ever knows where he is until an outrage is committed and then, before the authorities have recovered from their surprise, he is probably a hundred miles away. When the bank was blown up at Salonika, he stood by disguised as a policeman. He has never ordered a crime, which he was not ready to commit himself. He would make an ideal hero for a penny novelette.

His organisation reminds us somehow of the Irish Land League, which contrived to supplant the Queen's Executive with a real government, howbeit unauthorised. In every town and village of Macedonia he has a gang of supporters, who extort taxes, launch press-gangs, and even administer what they are pleased to call justice, placing a taboo upon the courts of the Kadis. The Komitajis even pose as censors of morals and the aficionados of wine or women are first warned and then killed if they do not instantly curb their desires at the word of command. Naturally this usurped government entails a vast amount of corruption. A Komitaji does not scruple to collect taxes for himself as well as for "the sacred cause"; an amateur judge carries his scales unsteadily; a censorship of public morals does not exclude the gratification of private spite. In Macedonia as in Ireland the local tyrant is but the alien ruler writ very large indeed. An imperial government always seems remote in a village, but a despot who spies upon you in the tavern and the alcove needs an exceeding bitter election cry to win your national suffrages.

There is no spontaneous outburst of disaffection among the Christians of Macedonia. They are accustomed to murmur against the Turks, who are born a dominant race, but have never mastered the routine of government. Theirs is a passive tyranny, a *laissez faire* of outrage, a farming of taxation, a delay of progress through sheer indifference. We may desire to relieve the Christian subjects of Turkey from a rule which is rather depressing than oppressive, but reform should build up as well as pull down. It is useless to leave Macedonia empty, swept and garnished, unless we take up the references of her next tenants. The history of the emancipated provinces of Turkey does not encourage the idea of conferring independence upon a people who are by nature and tradition only fitted for dependence. A greater Bulgaria or a greater Greece is ruled out of court by the character of little Bulgaria and the esurient Greeklings, while Servian aspirations were adjourned sine die last June. The success of Austria in Bosnia is so limited and the tender mercies of Russia are so notorious that either would be resisted as an administrator by all the peoples, nations and languages of the peninsula. Such statesmen as desire permanent peace for the Balkans can only regret that the disturbed provinces are outside the sphere of British influence and may not enjoy the curriculum which has regenerated Egypt.

As it is, the only course now open to Europe is to permit Turkey to stamp out rebellion; insist upon a due execution of recent reforms; and flush the cess-pools of Bulgaria. The Turks are strong enough to restore order very quickly, but they fear a sentimental outcry in Europe. Civil warfare against dynamiters and mutilators cannot be conducted with punctilio and rose-water, but the moderation of the Ottoman troops during their campaign against Greece encourages a hope that methods of barbarism may be eschewed once more. Whatever else he may be, the Sultan is no fool, and his chief desire is to fortify his position by

winning the approval of Europe. A wild canard was recently let loose by the "Times" newspaper, to the effect that the present rising was instigated by the Sultan himself. He might as plausibly be accused of arson at Yildiz, for he has nothing to gain and much to lose by a state of war. Were he a modern Nero, desiring a pretext for bloodshed, he needed no more than had already been afforded him by the Komitajis. The "Times" seems indeed to have lost all sense of proportion and probability since the misfortunes of its correspondent and we may also receive its insinuations against Russia with many grains of salt. Russian policy is often gley'd, but it has not called for criticism of late years in Macedonia. We only hope that it may be equally firm and honest in dealing with the Bulgarian bantling, which it called into being. That spoiled child has too long been permitted to disturb the peace of Europe and the rod may no longer be spared.

ITALY AND THE PAPACY.

THE election of a new Pope is from any point of view a mighty event. He claims the most ancient temporal sovereignty in Europe; he owns a world-wide spiritual sovereignty that is as potently felt in hovels and attics as in villas and palaces. It matters not a jot what a new Pope's history may have been as cardinal in Curia or ruler of a diocese: his personal proclivities disappear when he becomes Pope as surely as did Chancellor à Becket's when he became Archbishop of Canterbury, and we doubt not that had the election fallen upon Cardinal Rampolla his first measures would have been directed against the iniquities of the French Government. The newly-elect immediately ceases to be what he was the day before, be the cause what it may: his followers call it the Holy Ghost, the sapient prate of psychological metamorphosis: one thing is certain that Joachim Pecci, as Bishop of Perugia, would have gone down to posterity unknown; as Pope Leo XIII. posterity will speak of him as great.

It is idle therefore after the manner of some of our glib contemporaries to attempt a forecast of the reign of Pius X. based on our knowledge of the episcopal rule and policy of Cardinal Giuseppe Sarto. It is confidently said that he will not be a "political" Pope. What idle talk! Politics are just as much a branch of morals as commercial rectitude, and the Pope claims to be supreme in faith and morals. Wherever he sees what from his point of view is political iniquity, there we may be sure he will "meddle" in politics. Much, too, is made of the fact that Cardinal Sarto was liked by King Humbert and King Victor Emmanuel III., and that he called on both monarchs when they visited Venice. Why should he not? The Papacy has no quarrel with the House of Savoy for holding the ancient Republic of Venice, a territory, a "res nullius" if you will, won by Victor Emmanuel from the foreigner in open warfare. It is absurd to argue from this, as has been done, that there is any greater likelihood of a rapprochement between the Holy See and the Kingdom of Italy. We might as soon expect to see Pope Pius X. condemn an article of the creed of Pope Pius IV., as abandon the inalienable rights of the Church of which he has become the supreme guardian. It would be vain to look for transience in the head of the Church where the very principles of his Church are at stake.

Not that we need despair of a *modus vivendi*. With every change of dynasty or government in France during the last hundred years, Legitimist, Orleanist, Bonapartist or Republican, the Holy See has protested against France's possession of Avignon, lawfully purchased by Clement VI. for many golden florins, but not for this reason has the Holy See broken off relations with France. All the mischief with modern Italy is that she has not yet been able to get into regular diplomatic relations with the Holy See. Taking by force every single province and city of the Papal States, Italy has not succeeded in finding the basis on which the Vatican would consent to enter into diplomatic relations. A palace and a garden seemed to Pius IX.

an unfair exchange for Central Italy and the Centre of the Universe. Yet although the Pope claims all the lands of which the Church has been deprived, who shall say that some fraction of that all would not enable the Vatican to enter into relations with the Quirinal, even though a periodical protest in favour of the all might be thought necessary? But Italy which spared the Republic of San Marino will not yield a fraction of territory to the States of the Church, and hence the impossibility of any resumption of relations. "Qui mange du Pape en meurt," runs the French saying: Italy has swallowed the Pope whole, and has ever since suffered from acute national dyspepsia.

The death of Leo XIII. and the election of Pius X. have brought out many symptoms of this dyspepsia. Not a single Italian flag flew at half-mast for the death of the great Pontiff who, by the fundamental statute of the realm, is recognised as head of the national religion. Why? Because the death of the Pope was not officially communicated by the Cardinal Camerlengo to the Quirinal. But diplomatic relations do not exist between the two courts, and no court can communicate to the enemy the death of one sovereign or the accession of another. The very idea is a nightmare born of a dyspeptic stomach. 'Twas an excellent opportunity for using that finest of all diplomatic weapons, the proverbial coals of fire for the enemy's head. But modern Italy has not yet had the wit to resort to this simple and effective expedient. Still a lucid interval came with the morning and Zanardelli, the Prime Minister, instructed his prefects that, if invited by the ecclesiastical authority, they might officially attend requiems for the dead Pope. They were invited, and in most cases went. Why? The Quirinal has not in the meantime been notified by the Vatican. If there was a reason for not flying flags at half-mast, there was just the same reason for not officially attending a service of Requiem. It was a concession, but even this concession did not run to the length of real coals of fire: although the Italian Law of Guarantees acclaims the Pope a Sovereign and accords him "sovereign honours within the territories of this realm", although at Requiems for all Sovereigns, for the Tsar in Orthodox churches, for the President of the French Republic in Italian cathedrals, one naturally goes in full uniform, for our Lord the Pope one is ordered to go in undress. Assuredly it would have been better to stay away altogether: what comes of this concession of the Government if after all it is only made the occasion of violating Catholic law by refusing to accord the Pope full sovereign honours? Then the new Pope is elected; he is an enemy and according to the most elementary rule of international law cannot communicate his accession, but because—see Zanardelli's circular—he has not done what he cannot do, Italians are forbidden to attend Te Deums in celebration of his accession. He is Christ's Vicar thinks the Catholic Italians; God's Vicegerent upon earth; he is a Sovereign; he is our Spiritual Chief; he is an Italian and lives in our midst; the other nations are rejoicing in their millions; Italians alone may not. He has been ungenerous in not understanding the motives which led us to annex his capital and his territories, but is that any reason why we should be niggardly in according him the honours due to his twofold estate? Such, surely, must have been the musings of many a common-sense Italian, weary of the eternal nightmare which has supervened upon the swallowing of the Pope, and we think the Ministers of modern Italy would do well to meditate upon the wisdom of Solomon in Proverbs xxv. 21, 22.

It is a relief to turn for a moment to the serene and genial figure of the new Pope. The great series of Pontiffs opened, according to tradition, with a Galilean fisherman; it culminates to-day in the son of a Venetian contadino. The institution which can acclaim such chiefs is great, and we can understand the people who call it divine. Giuseppe Sarto's chief characteristics as priest and bishop seem to have been extreme simplicity, a humour and geniality which recall Pius IX., great personal holiness, reckless charity that asks none of the questions of charity organisation, and the unquestioned powers of a leader of men. "Ignis ardens" is the vaticination concerning him in the old prophecy of Saint Malachy, and we can see it fulfilled in the burn-

ing fire of his consuming charity. The Italian papers just now abound with delightful anecdotes about him, told in that Venetian dialect in which the Pontiff always thinks, and in which he speaks whenever he can. His brother is a village postmaster; his married sister keeps the little inn of the "Due Spade" in the Pope's native village; the two old sisters who lived on the third floor of the Patriarchal palace have never known what it is to wear hats; as Bishop of Mantua he would risk a scolding and steal his own dinner from the kitchen fire to give it to the poor; nay, the very Patriarchal ring, a gift of Pope Leo XIII., is said to be still in pawn at the Venice "Monte di Pietà", pledged to meet the claims of the needy. All that we know and hear of the personal character of Pius X. delights and even fascinates. Strange coincidences nearly always mark great characters. Nine years, they say, was he in the seminary, nine years a parish priest, nine years archpriest, nine years a Canon of Treviso, nine years Bishop of Mantua, nine years Cardinal and Patriarch of Venice. And nine years Pontiff, comes naturally into the mind. Not so, says an Italian contemporary rather happily, for since he wears three crowns we must give nine years to each, so he too, like Pius and Leo, shall pass the years of Peter as helmsman of the mystic bark of the Roman Church. Quod Deus concedat, will be the prayer of all rational folk.

THE SOLUTION OF THE ALIEN PROBLEM.

AT the time of the appointment of the Alien Immigration Commission, very many felt that it was appointed only to provide an excuse for inaction on the part of the Government. Naturally; for a Conservative Government had already promised legislation dealing with the question, and it was unreasonable to suppose that a Government would promise legislation before it had made up its mind that legislation was needed. The dilatory policy has brought its own reward. If the proceedings of the Commission absolved the Government from any necessity for immediate action, its report has finally left inaction without possible excuse. So much so that, on the whole, the Government's dilatoriness may even be accepted as a disguised gain, since the harm that has been done by delay will probably be more than made up by the energy of administration produced by an overwhelmingly strong case. Had the Government acted on their own motion without inquiry by commission, very many would have believed to the end that it was all merely a party move and that the alien problem was little but a bogey. The report of the Commission is a conclusive answer equally to those who said there was nothing to be done and to those who said it was impossible to do it. The report establishes the facts which prove that it was necessary to do something. It also shows to a practical and considerable extent how that something can be done. There is nothing left now but to do it.

The alien question has always fallen into two natural divisions, the bad alien and the pauper alien. Sometimes the former are classed as "undesirable", surely an unsatisfactory description, since it either begs the whole question as to pauper aliens or applies equally to both classes. That we have for long been receiving into this country far more than a reasonable share of alien bad characters there is now no doubt. Of our professional practitioners both in fraud and vice much more than a natural proportion are shown by the evidence given before the Commission to be foreigners. We would not for the world be guilty of the offensive hypocrisy which represents ourselves as conspicuously more moral or more honest than other nations; we certainly shall not pretend that immorality and fraud in this country is a foreign "free import". But it does appear to be true that for some years the Continent has been dumping down on our shores a larger number of its bad characters than we can fairly be expected to accommodate. In this class of, must we say, "goods" exports and imports, in spite of the economists, have not tended to equalise. There seems no doubt that certain new and particularly repulsive symptoms of immorality in this

country are traceable to foreign importation. These black sheep must be excluded and, if already here, returned or at any rate expelled. Probably all are agreed on this point, and the question only remains how it can best be done.

The other class, the class without visible or probable means of support, is a far more debateable subject, and involves problems much more difficult of solution. Undoubtedly the bulk of the alien immigrants in East London and elsewhere do not come within the vicious or criminal class. They are not enemies to society in the general sense, and their case cannot be dealt with as such. It must be recognised frankly as a question of British interests, though in one aspect, that of public health, more general grounds come in. But, assuming that these aliens are respectable people and good law-abiding inhabitants, does that settle the question in favour of not interfering with their influx into Britain? If the influx were moderate in its volume and normally sporadic, we have no doubt that it would; nor would anybody have raised a cry against them. Certainly not their English neighbours who are now the most insistent on the necessity of keeping them out. That alone should show people, who themselves unaffected by the alien invasion talk easily about British generosity and the meanness of objecting to foreigners coming here to earn an honest living, that there is something quite peculiar about the present necessity. There has always been a certain normally large Jewish and foreign population in East London. They have lived on the best of terms with their Christian and English neighbours. The British working classes have never had any of the anti-Semitic instinct. It is only quite recently that murmurings against the foreigners and Jews have been heard in East London. But they are heard now and daily more loudly. The reason is that the aliens, instead of coming and mixing with them as an ingredient in the population, have come in such numbers as to swamp a locality, forming a compact community of their own. It is the plain truth that in large areas they have simply displaced the English population. Our working people feel that they are being driven out by these foreigners. And the British statesman has to put to himself the question, is it desirable that the British population should be replaced by a foreign one, respectable, quiet and hard-working as it may be? Seeing that these aliens bring nothing into the country, except that possibly they introduce one or two of the cheapest and lowest class of industries; that they are exclusively an urban population, accentuating the drift to the towns and so doing nothing to make up the deficiency in rural labour but aggravating the superfluity of inferior town labour, we cannot see that their immigration and settlement in regular communities can be other than against British interests. This by itself would in our view be a case strong enough to justify alien regulation. But the case is, in fact, much stronger. The alien poor effect a lodgment in London and other of the large British towns, by accepting conditions of life, particularly in respect of house room, which the English working people will not, and ought not to, put up with. They have greatly aggravated the overcrowding problem, the most difficult and most pressing of modern social questions, by putting up with any kind of accommodation and paying practically any rent demanded. The regular English population is very careless of overcrowding, but the aliens are much worse. Further to aggravate the situation, the foreign Jew has a great liking for the business of East End house-owning, or house-farming; and gradually, nor very gradually either, they are becoming the landlords of East London. And they prefer alien and Jewish tenants, knowing they can get more out of them than out of the English. Bear in mind the great deficiency of house room in East London even for the ordinary English population, and it is easy to see how it has been squeezed out of whole areas by the alien immigrants.

The Commission is satisfied of the case for regulation, which it advises, proposing certain methods of execution. Their broad recommendation of action is more important than their specific proposals, because the real thing to be done was to effect a change of policy. That done, the means to enforce it would be found somehow. In

fact, however, the Commission has produced an actual scheme, going into considerable detail. The two salient proposals, in our view, are the establishment of an Immigration Department, and the power to declare "prohibited areas". The Immigration Department will be both the originating and executive force in alien regulation. Its mere existence changes the whole face of the situation; experience will teach how most effectively to attain the object aimed at. We attach therefore much less importance to the details of the Commission's recommendations; they are made a priori, and cannot be more than hypotheses to be verified by experience. In some ways the Commissioners seem even to have gone into needless detail. Surely there was no need to recommend that the Department of Immigration should have a staff to work it. One would have thought that a department implied a staff; a report is not an Act of Parliament and may leave some room for intelligence. The officers of the department are to make inquiries as to aliens on their arrival, and the department is to "act" on their information. This seems to mean that its officers must bring an alien charged, in round terms, with being a bad character or without means of subsistence before a magistrate sitting for the purpose, who may make an order for repatriation at the shipowner's cost. The department may also bring before the Court aliens already in the country charged as bad characters or with becoming a charge on the rates within two years of arrival in this country. Apparently too the magistrate may make an order of repatriation on his own motion, on the conviction for a criminal offence of an alien brought up before him in the ordinary way.

The Commissioners do not define "on arrival". Does it mean after or before landing? We hold most strongly that no alien that is to be brought before the magistrate should be allowed to land until found not to come within the categories set out. Allow them to land, and executive difficulties will be immensely aggravated. On the whole, we have no doubt that the Commission is right in not leaving action to the officials' independent discretion but requiring a magistrate's decision on the facts. It will cause delay, of course, but at the beginning of a new policy everything should be done that makes even for the appearance of greater fairness.

The proposal of "prohibited areas" is meant to meet overcrowding, which the Commissioners, we are glad to see, appreciate as perhaps the most serious aspect of the whole question. The proposal is that the department, apparently, is to have power to proclaim at its discretion areas prohibited to aliens; conviction of a breach of the prohibition within two years of arrival to be punishable as an offence. We have no doubt that the local authorities will clamour to get this power for themselves, and most of the centres of population would then become closed, legally, to aliens. The quality of this proposal depends on its feasibility. Apparently the Commissioners look to fear of consequences as the preventive of breaches of the proclamation: yet the sanction they propose is vague and does not sound at all drastic. It should at least be summary re-patriation. We do not see any reason for the term defined as "two years". Surely it should be during the continuance of the proclamation? Otherwise, after two years an area still under proclamation may be flooded by a wave of immigrants from other parts of England. For ourselves, we believe this proposal, which in itself we think a good one, will be effectual only by prevention. The first thing to do is to make any landlord convicted of receiving a new alien tenant in an area under proclamation liable to a very heavy fine. That would do more to prevent immigrants than anything else. The local authority should also be made responsible. Moreover, aliens who on arrival at port, finding their destination prohibited, give another address, should be accompanied to their venue by an official of the department, and, if they decline, sent back.

These, however, are details that can be settled only by experience. No doubt the Alien Immigration Act of next session will be but the first of a series. We shall have the Alien Immigration Acts 1904-1914, and then we shall know pretty well how this policy of regulation

can best be effected. The great thing now is to make a start. And the Commission has taken a great step towards it.

A SURVEY OF THE HIGHER SCHOOLS OF ENGLAND: S. PAUL'S SCHOOL.

FOUNDED BY DEAN COLET 1509: HIGH MASTER, DR. F. W. WALKER. APPOINTED 1876.*

JUST as at Westminster there appears to have been a school of some kind from time immemorial in connexion with the Abbey Church which was absorbed or amplified by the greater foundation of Elizabeth, so there was undoubtedly a school carried on in connexion with "Paul's" long before 1509: so far back as the reign of Stephen we hear of both the cathedral school of S. Paul's and the abbey school at Westminster. Colet, an adherent of the new Learning—and a reformer, who but for Archbishop Warham might have been hounded down for "heresy"—seems to have been out of conceit with the existing school; he was a rich man and had inherited lands from his father, twice Lord Mayor of London: with these he founded and endowed a new school "in the east end of St. Paul's Church for a hundred and fifty-three to be taught free in the same". Dr. Lupton, the learned author of Colet's Life, says the reason for this exact number of scholars is uncertain: it was reserved for the Jewish advocate, then Mr. Jessel, in a case concerning the school that came into the Chancery Courts not half a century ago, to suggest that the explanation was to be found in the New Testament, and the number of the miraculous draught of fishes. This number of scholars at that time would be very large, and would make S. Paul's one of the biggest, if not the biggest, school in England. Winchester and Eton had each seventy scholars and some day-boys or oppidans in addition, but probably neither would reach a regular total of 153. Dean Colet's views as to his school were very liberal. His scholars were to be "of all nations and countries indifferently". Two other interesting features show the bent of Colet's mind. Colet's S. Paul's appears to have been the first school in which Greek was taught: and it was also, we are told, the first school in England in which the statutes expressly forbade cock-fighting. The subsequent history of the school foundation has been not entirely free from storms. Colet, as was to be expected from a man of his leanings, chose not ecclesiastics, but "married citizens of established reputation" to manage his trust, and selected the Mercers' Company for the purpose, of which his father had been a member; and the Mercers' Company to this day select from among their own number the majority of governors, who with certain representatives nominated by the Universities supervise the school. By an "accident" the school did not appear in the schedule to the Public Schools Act, and its property became vested in the Charity Commissioners: Colet's original endowment produced in 1598 £120 a year; in 1894 the annual income was £18,000. Dr. Walker and the Company have waged several pitched battles with the Charity Commissioners as to the proportion of this income to be devoted to S. Paul's and the destination of the surplus: the Commissioners seem to have had wild notions of combining with the very successful upper grade secondary boys' school a lower grade secondary girls' school, an obvious means of ruining both. The settlement ultimately arrived at in 1900 was shortly that S. Paul's should receive two-thirds of the income of the Coletine estates, but never less than £14,000 a year, while the rest was to go to the S. Paul's girls' school. The governing body was to remain constituted in the way already mentioned without representation from the County Council, as had been suggested. As regards one-third of the foundation scholarships, "Special weight shall be attached to subjects proper to the Modern Department and Greek shall not be required".

The question of change of site and removal from the

heart of the City is one which agitated the minds of the authorities for no less a period than 250 years: that famous Pauline, Pepys, records that even in his time "Paul's School, they tell me, must be taken away and then, I fear, it will be long before another place, such as they say is promised, is found". Anyone who remembers the old school as it was but twenty years ago, with its gloomy cavernous basement—the school playground—pierced with rows of heavy pillars and barring out the curious crowd of passers with heavy iron grating—would hardly share in Pepys' fears. Though some neighbourhood less disturbing than traffic-laden Cheapside and Ludgate Hill was required, there was no intention of making S. Paul's anything but a day school. With considerable adroitness several acres were purchased at West Kensington, so as to bring the school in touch with one of the best residential neighbourhoods in London, and the site has the additional advantage of allowing the boys to make use of the river at Hammersmith.

Of distinguished alumni S. Paul's has had more than its share: of poets John Milton, of warriors John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, not to mention successful men of the world, like the first Barons North and Paget, judges like Lord Jeffreys, "Bloody Jeffreys", and Lord Truro, and in recent times Lord Harnen, Chief Baron Pollock, and the latter's son, "the last of the Barons", and in more academic lines Jowett, the great Master of Balliol, and Barham the author of the "Ingoldsby Legends".

And what of the modern S. Paul's? How does it serve its day and generation? It has buildings large and modern, if of somewhat monotonous ruddiness—a good expanse of playing fields at the back, a well-managed preparatory school across the road with underground and other means of communication and connexion with the larger school and passing 100 boys a year into the latter. Of the material advantages of situation and buildings there can be no question, still less that the London parent appreciates these advantages: there are 583 boys in the school, though this is somewhat below the average of past years, and 400 at Colet Court, the preparatory school for boys from 8 to 12, making the total numbers together close on 1,000. But what does S. Paul's stand for in the educational world? The question is not easy to answer in a sentence. To the outside world S. Paul's stands as the most successful scholarship-winning school of modern times; compared with other public schools, whether residential schools like Eton or Winchester, or day schools like Merchant Taylors or the City of London School, the results achieved by S. Paul's are little short of astounding: for instance in 1902, 4 open scholarships at Oxford, 14 at Cambridge, 18 in all, and all direct from school: to this list must be added for the year 3 fellowships gained by old Paulines at their respective colleges, 4 university scholarships, 4 college scholarships, 1 university prize, 11 first classes in classics, 1 in mathematics and 4 in natural science, or 16 first classes gained during the year.

Nor is the school less successful in winning scholarships at the hospitals or in passing boys into the Army or Civil Service: in the same year 11 boys attained civil appointments and 14 passed into Sandhurst or Woolwich, the greater part of the latter direct from school.

A list like this must strike fear to the heart of the ordinary headmaster. In Dr. Walker's own words "The day schools are honour schools and the boarding schools are pass schools"; S. Paul's certainly justifies the mot. To those who know the personality of the famous headmaster and his methods the explanation of these Pauline successes is simple: he himself does not teach but somehow, no one quite knows how, he has an intimate knowledge of the capacities and progress of every boy in the school, which is to the boy as well as to his form master little short of mystifying. "You've done wonders", he said on one occasion, reviewing the past year's work with a captain of the school, then about to leave; and then characteristically added "And so has your younger brother"—an insignificant shrimp in the lower third, who had been one term in the school, and managed somehow to fluke a French prize, *dell'alta qualita' nel la lingua*.

* For many of the facts in this article obligation is acknowledged to J. G. C. Minchin's "Our Public Schools".

The prevailing feeling of the boys for this strong, massive, deep-voiced man would undoubtedly be fear: the sternest punishment inflicted by the High-master at his frequent short visits to the various forms would only be to say, "Foolish boy", but in a way that made the soul tremble: only in later life did his pupils learn to merge that fear in a very real and lasting affection. That the desire to satisfy the demands of this awe-inspiring personality would promote hard work there can be no doubt, and many a boy's home lessons at S. Paul's would keep him up to past midnight in consequence. Dr. Walker may without offence be described as the highest type of "educational hustler". On the other hand on closer examination one finds that the mere winning of scholarships is certainly not the limit of the ideal either in the High-master's mind or at work in the school: many, if not most of the boys at S. Paul's come from homes where, without scholarships, a University education is out of the question: the boys are ambitious and want to go to the University, and the result is that nearly all who do go go with scholarships.

It is often charged against S. Paul's that, considering their successes in winning scholarships and first classes Paulines do very little in after life, that they are driven too fast at first, their energies are "pumped out". Probably, a truer way to put it is that many a boy of mediocre ability, when under the immediate stimulus of the exceptional intellectual atmosphere of S. Paul's, attains success beyond his form: later in life, when this stimulus is withdrawn, he falls back into his normal place. Dr. Walker adds another point, and undoubtedly a true one: that it is becoming harder every day to attain the biggest successes that life has to offer without "influence": and influence his boys very often do not possess.

In view of the outside estimate of the great High-master, it is almost startling to hear him say, as we have, that "there is only one school in England, and that is Eton: we are all more or less successful imitators of Eton".

Coming from S. Paul's the paradox is especially surprising: interpreted it probably means that since the movement of the school to the suburbs far more stress has been laid on athletics and social life. Dr. Walker even goes so far as to say that success in scholarship winning does not affect the success of the school—"What we have to do is to satisfy the mothers and they like to see their boys good-mannered and in good health: so far as we are successful it is because we achieve this better than other schools". The new premises have lent themselves better to social life than did the old ones: 250 boys now lunch actually on the school premises on the five school days, Saturday being a whole holiday. The large hall is open for boys between schools, which are from 9.30 to 1 and from 3 to 5: in that interval of two hours in the middle of the day as many as 120 boys are to be found in the large hall, though of course many boys, whose parents live near, go home. There is also a large room in the basement open to the boys without any interference from a master. There are all the equipments of the modern active school workshops, engineering shops, swimming bath, Morris tube range and twelve acres of playing fields. Games are compulsory one afternoon a week for all boys not actually excused by their parents; the whole school is divided into five sets of 120, and each set has one afternoon of the five schooldays on which it has no work but all boys in it must resort to some game. Dr. Walker even looks forward to getting the Governors to allow him to make the presence of boys at Hammer-smith compulsory on Saturdays simply in order to develop athletics.

Of the general curriculum but little has been said: though the school has a strong science and modern side numbering some 220, and a most successful army class numbering about 80, every boy must do classics up to 14 and 280 continue the classical course through the school; there is no direct preparation for business. S. Paul's may be called the most classical of the schools of the modern type. There can be no doubt of the intellectual pressure exerted and vitality attained at S. Paul's; with a little more of the traditions and "open airiness" of the ordinary English public school

S. Paul's would go far to realise the ideal in English education.

The Editor cannot let this article pass without expressing his sense of the great personal debt he owes to his old master and old friend, Dr. Walker.

BRITISH CAVALRY.—I.

THE SUPPLY OF RECRUITS.

SINCE the first essential for the creation and maintenance of any armed force is to ensure the supply of men of the right type, the question of cavalry recruiting is obviously the first point to consider in cavalry reorganisation. A standing difficulty in the way of making any improvement in this matter is due to the old grievance of our horse soldiers that their affairs are now, and nearly always have been, regulated by infantry officers in high place, men who neither know nor understand the peculiar conditions necessary for the making of a thoroughly good cavalry soldier. Now it is no exaggeration to say that our cavalry arm has almost as much right for special consideration on this point as has our navy. For in both cases, unless a man has either by breeding or environment some previous connexion with the service he joins, or enters it young enough to imbibe its true spirit, he is likely enough to turn out indifferently. Experienced naval officers aver that they are profound believers in "heredity" as applied to their own branch of the service, in so far that if they can get a grown man who is a "seaman" in the broad sense of the term as opposed to being a "landsman", they can soon turn him into efficient fighting material. It is the great difficulty of obtaining such class of men from among our fishing population and our mercantile marine that has driven the navy to the only possible alternative of training up lads to be "seamen" from the age of fourteen or fifteen. A foot soldier can be trained at any age, but a soldier who has "to do with" horses must either, in order to be easily and effectively trained, be bred to it or caught young and "educated" to it. Thus I have not the smallest hesitation in saying that our cavalry should be recruited mainly from among the inhabitants of these isles who are connected with the care and management of horses. This may possibly sound Utopian to some, but when it is remembered, first, how small, how very small is our force of cavalry, only twenty-eight regiments of the line all told, and further, how large is the number of young men who are bred and brought up amid "horsey" surroundings in the United Kingdom, I venture to think that it is by no means an out-of-the-way suggestion.

One great advantage of thus getting recruits who have had to do with horses before they enlist and who may reasonably be reckoned as belonging to the "horse-loving" population is that a lad drawn from this class upon first commencing his military career is not only something of a horseman, but what is even more important has some ideas of horse-mastership. All who have been brought into contact with the cavalry recruit know well the difficulty there is to get him to realise that a horse requires special care and attention. Unfortunately under existing conditions the average cavalry recruit is only too often one who, without any previous connexion with horses, has been induced to enlist as a horse-soldier, possibly attracted by the smart uniform, and regardless of his ignorance of horses or of the labour of looking after them. Again, all of us who have had to deal with, at any rate, newly raised Mounted Infantry know well the trouble involved in making them regard their horses as aught beyond animated machines provided to carry them about the country and to sit upon all day and every day. Hence most of the trouble about the "Remounts" in South Africa.

If, however, sufficient recruits cannot be obtained, as I suggest, from amongst our "horse-loving" population, the only alternative is to enlist lads of fourteen or fifteen at a reduced scale of pay—"boy's pay" in fact—and train them up to be horse-soldiers. I have often

heard it remarked by cavalry officers that capital horse-men and good horse masters are to be found among their trumpeters, who are enlisted as lads at fourteen years of age. My contention is that if some such means as are here outlined could be adopted to secure the right class of recruit for our cavalry, it would ensure for us the two cardinal points which, beyond all others, make for the efficiency of cavalry; that the expensive chargers provided by the taxpayer would be both well ridden and well looked after in war-time. Surely this is worth striving for even at the appalling risk of giving a little extra trouble to our infantry staff officers in Pall Mall.

Let us assume that by the adoption of some such system we had succeeded in obtaining recruits of the right stamp and, let there be no mistake about this, training them in the right way. It would next be obviously to the interest of the nation as well as to that of the Army to pass these men, when thus thoroughly trained to ride and fight on horseback and shoot on foot, to the Reserve. This, I well know, savours of heresy and I shall be told that it has been found that cavalry Reservists rapidly deteriorate and that in consequence men should be induced to serve on with their regiments. I, however, believe the contrary and I am fortified in my belief by the opinion of cavalry officers of repute that, save in the case of non-commissioned officers and for the requirements of foreign service, it would be most desirable to permit the thoroughly trained cavalry soldier to pass into the Reserve as soon as possible. One distinguished cavalry officer indeed goes so far as to propose that a soldier should be given a proportionate bonus according to the shortness of the time in which he becomes thoroughly efficient, both as an incentive for him to learn his work quickly and to induce him to go into the Reserve. Such an arrangement need not cause any additional expense to the country, since there would be a large saving in the pay and keep of men thus passed to the Reserve.

So much for the recruit who turned out in every way satisfactory; next as to the inevitable proportion of "failures". Here it would enormously improve the general efficiency of our cavalry and at the same time be a great saving of public money, were commanding officers of cavalry to be granted powers to discharge forthwith any recruit who, after six months' instruction, was found to be lacking either in horsemanship or a knowledge of horsemastership, or one who from inherent stupidity, bad eyesight or other defect was in his opinion "not likely to make an efficient cavalryman". Our Admiralty authorities, working on more practical and businesslike lines than do those at the War Office, have some such provision; and rightly so, since in their case the lives of comrades may depend on the skill and intelligence of individual seamen. Is it asking for too much that in the cavalry men should be discharged who are found after six months' trial to be clearly wanting in the intelligence and attributes of a good horse-soldier? It is sinful waste of public money to retain them.

If our cavalry were to be recruited on these lines, we should shortly create a large reserve of young cavalry soldiers of from twenty to thirty years of age (it would be inadvisable to retain them when over thirty) who would be at once available in case of war. The advantages and economy of the "early training" proposal are obvious, for lads recruited at about fifteen would commence work at a most teachable age; and it is notorious that, to make bold horsemen, lads must begin to ride early when they least feel the falls and knocking about inseparable from a thorough training as cavalrymen.

Two points were noticeable about the cavalry who served in South Africa. The Reservists came up well and were efficient but it was generally remarked that they would have been better had they been a bit younger. It was also noted how the cavalrymen who really came to the front during the campaign were those who looked well after their horses.

GREY SCOUT.

SPORT IN THE BONE.

GOOD form and sense are to seek when a man makes parade of his own pet branch of field sport at the expense of other branches which he does not care for. If the lapse is very deliberate, enthusiasm is poor excuse for him. It would be as doubtful taste for the hunter to scoff at angling as for the dry-fly fisherman to scoff at the wet-fly method, or the believer in the butts or battue at the man who stalks his own quarry unaided or with a dog or two. And besides it is folly: there is no proving which is better or best of the field pursuits in their various branches; so that the stinging word ignorance may fit him who is cocksure that his own fancy is alone worth a good man's while to follow. On the other hand some comparison between branches of field sport, between wet and dry fly, shooting at the butts and shooting over dogs, is very hard to avoid: and there is no great offence in it, where the talker's or the writer's object is simply to bring out clearly the joys of his own pursuit, not the poor sport of the other man's. Mr. Arkwright's book* on the pointer, which people may be reading and chatting of this week on their way to the grouse moor, or in hotel and shooting lodge, strikes such comparisons; and sometimes, it must be said, he verges on a slight aggressiveness towards "slaughter" among grouse. His quotations at any rate do. Here we have Charles S. John's protest against relays of keepers (and relays of dogs too for the matter of that): Colquhoun in much the same vein, with Lacey and his blunt assertion about shooting without dogs being not sport, but "gun-firing". Yet here is a book so earnest and a name so significant that we may allow him a little license. An Arkwright on the pointer sounds as good as a Westwood on editions of Walton or a Hawker on the gun; and indeed Mr. Arkwright graces with something of the literary taste of Westwood the hard-won knowledge of a Hawker. Here, too, is a series of beautiful illustrations ranging from Titian to Miss Maud Earle—Titian will probably suffer in the eyes of a judge of dogs by the juxtaposition—with accomplished notes on each plate by the author: though, as a detail, I may find a little fault with his natural history in this: "early Spanish pictures of pointing dogs are as rare as butterflies in March": has he not seen the small tortoiseshells and the sulphurs that comes out before the chiffchaff is heard in the English spring? Old Spanish pictures of pointing dogs cannot be so common as all this. Mr. Arkwright is as well fortified as anyone to criticise pictures of pointers, provided perhaps the art is not impressionist: and I never heard of impressionism applied to this sporting dog: he might claim, indeed, as Arnold of the fritillary fields, "who knows them if not I?" But to enjoy him most you turn over the pages that deal not with the art or history of the dog but with its work in the field; its character and temperament. This is no house dog like the curly-coated retriever or the Irish water-spaniel. If you want a good companion indoors as well as in the field no doubt the setter is more to the point. In "St. Ronan's Well" Sir Bingo Binks tries to put Francis Tyrrel in the wrong for employing a setter instead of a pointer; and Tyrrel, cold and dangerous, teaches him a lesson on the setter's value as at once an indoor companion and a sporting dog. It is in the field, better, on the moor, that the pointer is so fine to watch. In turnips, owing to the modern system of sowing by drill, a strong fast dog may be at fault, for the birds may run down the lines and take wing while he strides. And yet there are amazing moments; "when the covey springs up all around you, as if by magic in a whirling chattering hurry-skurry; or when, in a redolent clover field"—where I have shot partridges most, this is commonly called a field of clover-heads—"a brace of pups, at the very prime of their powers, will strike point after point on the stragglers of a scattered covey, while you respond by accounting for fugitive after fugitive". The moor is where Mr. Arkwright cares most to watch the pointer and finds him at his best. So rapt in his work is the dog that like Horace's

* "The History of the Pointer." By W. Arkwright. London: Humphreys. 43 3s.

hunter he is often completely insensible to female charms. It must be fine to watch some of Mr. Arkwright's best, high-strung and sensitive, "sweeping over the rough places like swallows and passing each other as if they were fine ladies not introduced". There is plenty of room for skill and presence of mind in the shooter—though I take it that when everything has been said, the severest test of cool nonchalant marksmanship is the driven bird—but obviously in this sport the working of the dog is, in a large degree, the thing. The dog—this one is not in Mr. Arkwright's pages—which looks reproachfully at his master when a shot has been badly bungled, one seems to be familiar with in print: one has shot in cover and in the field over a good many very keen dogs, without ever coming across one that did anything of this kind after a humiliating miss at pheasant, woodcock or partridge. But undoubtedly they do enter with rare zest into the sport; so that many might take almost the chief delight in watching, with Lacey, the "gallant style of ranging and the beautiful attitude of the animals on point".

Here then is sport for an epicure, like that of dun or quill on the oo hook on gossamer whisked to a sucking three-pounder. I need not dispute Mr. Arkwright's claim to prefer above all others the branch in which he was suckled; and in return he will not cross me when I confess that the sport with the gun that appeals most to me is of another kind. "My father, dying when I was but a few weeks old," says Mr. Arkwright, "left instructions that his pointers were to be preserved for me and charged Charles Ecob, his favourite keeper, to look after my sporting education". That is the way it should be done. Then you have sport in the bone. The shooting some of us care for most is that natural kind we were reared to; the kind most akin to that of the original, who went into wood and wild to see and to stalk his game furred or feathered. He was pot-hunter, this prototype of ours, no doubt, the cunning pursuit being to him not so much the joy as the means to the joy. Mr. Otho Paget, in his book "Hunting" in the "Haddon Hall Library", full of native force defends pot-hunting as such: he is perfectly right. But in the main the pot, though sometimes a consideration, and fairly and naturally, is not the chief motive of the sport now.

Even the poacher may forget the end in the joy of the means to it, in the thrill of the stalk. To pit wile against wile, herein is to be sought one convincing secret of the fascination in the sport where you do all for your keen self. The dry fly may be the acme of it in English field sport: stooping, crouching, creeping, even crawling on the belly—I have known a man to lie flat for hours that he may get from time to time a half cast to a cruising trout in a shallow backwater—the shifting from position to position to overcome the disheartening wind and water, the tense peering for the faintest sign of a fish moving at fly: these mark a stalk of almost painful strenuousness. Then the rise, the twitch that is to bury the barb, the bent rod, and perhaps the smash at the end of it all. This particular element does not come in to the same extent in the pursuit of game among common down and coppice with shot gun, though it may in the forest with the rifle and deer as the quarry. Yet this pursuit of game bird and beast, when one is alone or at most is aided by the keeper and a dog or two, has points in common with the stalk and capture of, or defeat by, the large trout of the chalk stream. It is the pursuit of a real wild animal, often watchful, deft at means of escape when disturbed in its lair. Where the cover is large and thick you know that, once you miss, say, your woodcock, there is not much hope of coming up with it again that day: the keener the wish then not to fail. The picking and choosing of your ground when the dogs are on the scent; the instinct which leads you where woodcock or pheasant, rabbit or hare, even woodpigeon, is most likely to be found on such and such a day; the casting about how best to approach the spot—here comes in the woodcraft that only years of loving intimacy on the spot teach a man. He must be bred to it, as Mr. Arkwright to the pointers; have lived in the thick of it, been in touch with the gamekeeper, the woodman, the poacher even. He must steal about, as a very

poacher, all hours, watching the ways of wild creatures; be able to set a snare, track the spoor, know the haunts and the hours and the cries by day and by dark of bird and beast. This is wood or field sport, whatever else be. I drank deep of its joy for many years, and would drink on.

Enthralling though the delicate work with the dry fly be, this rude sport with the gun may bring us as near the ways of the old hunter. Was he moved, the original, by the scenes among which he stalked? This with us, it is certain, is a large part of the joy; a feeling at one with nature, a state of being lapt in the beauty and mystery of quiet, wild places. Some may arrive at an appreciation of the beauty of the earth through books; or by going about with a band-box full of culture. The gun or the rod handled by the young hunter in lonely scenes is another way. Scenes of wonder crowd on the mind of the shooter or fisher when he recalls his days by field or flood. Perhaps none of these has ever sunk deeper than the hour of the walk home after sundown. Then, after the last glow or faint suffusion of colour has passed away, comes the great monochrome of night, the dark oaks burnt and bitten into a sky that behind them looks bright. No sunset and no dawn exceeded it for sombre mystery.

GEORGE A. B. DEWAR.

THE TRAGEDY OF PIERROT.

ESSAYISTS numerous and various have combined to exalt the sense of humour. With ponderous seriousness and much vain repetition they have sought to show that a man is happy who possesses it. His the fuller enjoyment when the day is bright, and for him the glimpse of the silver lining when the cloud obscures the sky. Quite recently a learned professor has analysed and divided into its component parts the spirit of laughter, weighing up, to his own satisfaction at least, with the exact clumsiness of the man of science, a sense so delicate, so elusive. Little concern have we with definitions. Enough if we can recognise the thing when we see it, and have wit enough to distinguish between the spurious with its back-smacking boisterousness arousing the applause of the vulgar, and the genuine which evokes a different kind of laughter—a laughter that has its echo in a sigh. Small wonder that the true man of humour should pass unrecognised unless he dons the motley and performs his antics in the market-place. Of all men he is most to be pitied. He stands alone in the midst of phantoms. To move in the world of other people as though taking it at their estimate is possible only as a kind of irony. For him none of those comfortable illusions which make possible and pleasant the lives of his fellows. He can hear the laughter of the gods above the applauding din of the multitude. No inner voice whispers with smug complacency that he is the "superior" man. He has a satiric, aggressive, almost angry conviction of the littleness of the world around.

It is as though man's fatal limitations constitute a kind of stupidity in him, what the French call *bêtise*. The humourist can never be the man of action. The brute strength of prejudice or passion can never be his. With the perception of the fundamental nothingness under the apparent surface of things, nothing can be ever quite worth while. He is shut out from the work of his fellows. He stands alone. Yet it might seem that there must be compensation. In that "little farm" of his own mind where "a silence so profound can be enjoyed", surely he must possess a serenity of mind, a capacity of appreciation above his fellows. But even here the eternal laughter pursues him. The idealist has even less of comfort for him than the realist. The much-talked-of achievements of men through the ages, the lofty conceptions of genius, strike him with the sense of incongruity as he views the disproportion between means and ends. The world of thought no less than the world of action becomes pigmy for him. A dogged hopelessness pursues him.

Painfully aware of the awful brevity of existence he

cannot, epicurean-like, clutch the passing moments as they fly and squeeze from them the utmost they can yield of sensation. He can but laughingly look on with wonder at the wisdom of the foolish and the folly of the wise. Impossible for him to regard death seriously, although the "sense of fitness"—that great product of humour—may cause him to bow his head before it with grave decorum. He cannot when his turn comes yield up his broken sword "to Fate the Conqueror with a brave and humble heart". He must with grim smile die over and over again, as he watches, day by day, the decline of his powers, the weakening of his muscles. . . .

Such is the tragedy of Pierrot. "He knows that his face is powdered, and if he sobs it is without tears, and it is hard to distinguish under the chalk, if the grimace which twists his mouth awry is more laughter or mockery."

THE END OF THE MUSICAL SEASON.

THE year, prematurely exhausted, seems already to lie a-dying; winter is hard upon us; and as I see the autumn leaves scudding about on the lawn before me, so I imagine the world-famous artists who lately favoured London with their company flying to the various health resorts of Europe. Those "ruined choirs where late the sweet birds sang" are now bare indeed. S. James' Hall is, I presume, given up to the Revivalist meetings; and Covent Garden to Fancy Dress Balls or Nonconformist tea-meetings. The season is finished; the harvest is gathered in; and now that the clatter and noise of the day have died away one may in peace reckon up what it has all been about. It has been a season of booms: there has been a boom of various conductors at Queen's Hall; at Queen's Hall there has been a Richard Strauss boom; at Westminster Cathedral there was a brief Elgar boom; and besides these there have been various minor booms.

And I declare that never in my experience have so many booms—and booms so loud—been worth so little; never has there been so much noise and so little effect. The mountain has laboured stupendously and brought forth virtually nothing. And a lesson to be learnt is simply that it is useless to have a boom at all unless there is something to boom. These premature booms are a nuisance. Mozart early in life had a boom; but his "Figaro" boomed itself, and probably no one was more surprised than himself that it went so prodigiously. Wagner, living under far different conditions, needed a boom; but he was an old man before he got it. It was only in '76 that Bayreuth came to pass; and in '83 he died at the age of seventy. But nowadays, so very clever have we got, a violinist cannot reach the age of twenty-four or -five, or a composer the age of forty, without the ever-avid agent seizing upon him and essaying to pass him (or her) upon a gullible world as a kind of infant phenomenon. No opportunity is lost. If a youthful fiddler arranges a marriage with some princess or countess or other harmless nonentity of the sort, depend upon it her photograph proves easily accessible and duly appears with complimentary paragraphs in the illustrated papers. Should a composer risk his foolish life by taking a ride in one of those deadly engines known as motor-cars, be sure the fact will be recorded with many marks of exclamation in the Musical Notes of some morning paper. What with paragraphs in the papers, sandwich-men in the streets, and the incessant clatter and chatter in the concert-halls, life is becoming intolerable.

Let me call the attention of agents and all those whom it may concern to the fact that, while the artificial boom fails at least nine times out of ten, it kills the steady musical business which ought to be the sign of a healthy musical life. To revert to the instance of Wagner, when so gigantic a revolutionary work as his must be achieved then a boom such as the Bayreuth boom is imperative. It was not simply the popularisation of Wagner's music that had to be done: it was also the cleansing and reforming of the opera-houses

of Europe. An example had to be set and the example would have been of small use unless a crowd had been brought to see it. But with regard to Richard Strauss, to take his case, if his music had as much in it as its admirers say, the fact can only become known slowly, by incessantly hearing the music. A boom that lasts less than a week is a waste of time, money and energy. The thing wanted is the steady playing of the music at many concerts all over the country—for London is not England. That might put the thing to the test; while these unnatural spasmodic crazes really test nothing whatever. And whatever chance the music of Strauss had of making a rapid success here at the beginning of the year I fear it now has no chance at all.

Booms take many shapes and forms; and of these surely the strangest is the musical festival. England has always been badly troubled with festivals; positively the provinces ought to be vaccinated against them, for the disease is virulent there; but this year London has been taken with painful suddenness. A Strauss festival and a Beethoven festival, a mild sort of Elgar festival, a heavy dose of Wagner opera constituting a Wagner festival—I stand amazed at the amount of work some of my brethren must have done. We have also heard a proposal for a festival of British music—which proposal, absurd though it was, I dealt with here some weeks ago. What the Strauss festival has done for Strauss I have already said—nothing; I don't know that Beethoven stood greatly in need of a festival; while the performance of Elgar's "Dream of Gerontius" only made me wish that Elgar would handle themes more intimately connected with our modern life. There is, I repeat, nothing to be said about these functions; there was little to be said at the moment at which they occurred; and now that they have slid away into the dark backward and abysm of time there is less than nothing to be said.

That is, there is nothing to be said in the way of criticism of the incidents themselves. But with regard to the booming principle there is something to be added, to what I have already said. With one exception all the festivals of the season have been booms of composers; and the exception, the Beethoven festival, was a boom for certain artists. What has been the net result of it all? I am not like the Scotchman who had his doubts. I don't believe the festival organisers made much money; I am certain that the subjects or victims of the festivals have not greatly added to whatever fame they already possessed; I know the main result of the whole thing must have been to confirm the average Englishman in his belief that a concert or an opera is an extraordinary occurrence, something quite out of the course of ordinary events. That is not what is desired. Concerts and operas ought to be looked upon as ordinary affairs which one can attend just as one goes to a theatre or a music-hall. This turning of ordinary concerts into marvellous events is precisely what we should not desire; and it is for this reason that I lay upon them the heartiest curse in my vocabulary.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

SHAREHOLDERS AND POLICY-HOLDERS.

A LONG time ago the words "proprietary" and "mutual" in connexion with Life assurance had a different meaning from that which attaches to them now. Formerly a proprietary office gave no portion of the profits to the policy-holders. At present every proprietary company gives the larger share of the surplus to participating policy-holders. The relative merits of the two classes of offices can no longer be discussed on the lines that were appropriate when proprietary companies retained the whole surplus for their shareholders.

The proportion of surplus which is allotted to the policy-holders is however a matter of much importance in determining the relative merits of different companies from a policy-holder's point of view. The report of the London Assurance Corporation always

suggests this subject since its accounts reveal that the proprietors take a proportion of the surplus to which no objection could have been taken in 1720 when the corporation was founded or even a century later, but which is hopelessly wrong in the present day.

In 1902 the shareholders took £11,915 from the non-participating branch, £5,770 from the participating account, or £17,685 in all out of a premium income of £163,322. This amounts to 10·8 per cent. of the premiums, which added to the expenses makes the total cost of commission, management and shareholders 22·7 per cent. of the premium income.

In the majority of other proprietary companies the participating policy-holders receive about 90 per cent. of the total surplus from participating and non-participating assurances and from annuities. The proprietors of the London Assurance take the whole profits of the without-profit branch and one-third of the surplus from with-profit policies, out of which they pay the expenses, but not commission. The prospectus of the corporation says "this arrangement is a great safeguard to the assured that their interests will not suffer". It seems to us that the interests of the assured suffer very considerably by giving the shareholders almost £11 out of every £100 paid in premiums. In return for this abnormally heavy tax the policy-holders receive no benefit whatever. The corporation would do well to alter the wording of its prospectus immediately and to revise the method of distributing its surplus at the earliest opportunity.

Last year only 543 new policies were issued assuring £291,084. This is not merely less than usual but is a miserably poor result for an office of the age and standing of the London Assurance. The present policy of the corporation if continued much longer will surely slay the goose that lays the golden eggs since no sensible policy-holder will elect to pay more than 2s. in the £, when doing so is of no advantage to him in any way.

The Royal Exchange which was also founded in 1720 has recognised the necessity of giving a larger share of the surplus to the participating policy-holders and many other companies have made changes in the same direction. The trend of these changes is towards giving 90 per cent. of the surplus from the entire Life assurance and annuity business to participating policy-holders and 10 per cent. to the shareholders, and no smaller proportion for the policy-holders than this is compatible with permanent popularity among intending policy-holders. These are the terms that prevail in such offices as the Edinburgh, Equity and Law, Legal and General, University, Westminster and many others. On this basis the question of mutual *v.* proprietary sinks into the background and the relative merits of different companies must be determined by other considerations.

There remain many offices however the shareholders of which take too liberal a share of the profits. Twenty per cent. is taken by the proprietors of the Alliance, Commercial Union, Guardian, Lancashire, and (approximately) the Royal. A few other companies take as much, but it is significant that these are all Fire insurance offices as well as Life, thus possessing other sources of dividends for shareholders. On the other hand the companies we named as giving 90 per cent. to the policy-holders are purely Life offices. This is a further illustration of the fact to which we have several times called attention that offices doing Life business alone are normally better for policy-holders than the great Fire insurance companies which transact Life business also.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MERCHANT TAYLORS' SCHOOL.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Charterhouse, Godalming, 12 August, 1903.

SIR,—You ask whether I "really contend that schoolmasters are to have a freehold tenure". Certainly I do not, for in that case there could be no guarantee of efficiency. But I do contend that, in the

interests of education as well as of the masters, protection from arbitrary and unreasonable dismissal is essential. The conditions of scholastic life are peculiar. In all large schools masters are appointed young. Consequently a man who after fifteen or twenty years' service is dismissed from a school has almost no chance of obtaining another post, so that his professional life comes then and there to an abrupt end. Obviously therefore, if men are liable to such dismissal on the mere fiat of an individual and without any opportunity of redress, the career of a schoolmaster is one on which no prudent man will enter. It is not a career which leads (except in the case of clergymen) to anything in the way of honour or much in the shape of reward, but it has hitherto afforded a certain security which made many prefer it to professions in which the risks and the rewards were alike greater. But, if the feeling that faithful performance of duty affords no security whatever once gains ground, then the profession will lose one of its chief advantages, and by consequence continually attract fewer men possessed either of capacity or common sense.

I do not deny that a particular headmaster may find it "pay" to get rid of senior masters and fill their places with younger men; but I do maintain that this policy of pure selfishness, although it may bring profit in a single instance, secures that profit unfairly by violating a principle which ought, under reasonable limitations, to be carefully maintained for the general good of education.

Your obedient servant,
T. E. PAGE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

8 August, 1903.

SIR,—My absence from London until to-day has deprived me of seeing recent numbers of the SATURDAY.

The tone of your article on Merchant Taylors' School and your note in this week's issue seem so evidently inspired by the new régime that it is hardly astonishing that correspondence has followed. The article contains errors, one of which in particular does grave injustice to men who are no longer at Merchant Taylors'. As one who took part in teaching French by the "New Method", I crave space to give the facts correctly. Knowing Mr. Nairn, I am not surprised, but I say that his claim to have introduced the "New Method" is a piece of preposterous impudence equalled only by his recent posing as an educational authority (with three years' experience) in the pages of the "New Liberal Review". To speak of having introduced the New Method "throughout the school" is absurd and shows ignorance of what that method really is. It can only be introduced gradually, beginning with the lowest forms and adding fresh ones as promotions are made. It was so introduced a considerable time before Mr. Nairn's day by Mr. von Glehn with the sanction of the Chief Master of Modern Subjects, Mr. Storr, and had almost reached the top of the Lower School when Mr. Nairn came. You say too that Mr. Nairn insists that all masters taking modern languages shall be capable of proper oral teaching. Has he not still on the Modern Language staff a master who pronounces the last word of "Un Philosophe sous les Toits" to rime with the English word quoit?

You object, Sir, to your correspondent's abuse of the class-rooms. This is hardly fair, seeing that the original article dealt with the school as a whole. Surely the class-rooms are of as great importance and as necessary to its well-being as Mr. Nairn himself. The writer of the article mentions the liberality of the Company in providing cricket-grounds, &c. On the other hand, I had to teach French for nine years without a blackboard. It would seem indeed as if the Company were lavish in spending on anything which attracts public attention but parsimonious in other matters not less important. In school furniture and equipment Merchant Taylors' is a long way behind most county and board schools.

Mr. Page deals trenchantly with the general principles involved in the recent scandal, but Mr. Nairn must not be taken too seriously when playing to a gallery of

old boys and of parents, present and prospective. To me the explanation of his conduct and attitude seems quite simple, if the milieu in which he was educated is taken into account. An ordinary Irish Intermediate school, where the whole energies of the staff are directed to obtaining payment by results, and the atmosphere of the Jesuits' College in Dublin are not likely to produce a man fitted to govern a great English public school. The years in which others are gaining a knowledge of the world must have been spent by Mr. Nairn in examination halls, for he is a graduate with many honours and prizes, of no less than three universities, the Royal (of Ireland), Cambridge, and London.

It is the conduct and attitude of the Court of the Company that have been so extraordinary and inexplicable. When everything, especially what has taken place subsequent to the press agitation last year, is made public, these will seem more extraordinary and incredible still.

Yours faithfully,

J. G. ANDERSON.

THE FATE OF THE SCOTTISH CATHEDRALS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Belmont, Lifford, co. Donegal, 5 August, 1903.

SIR,—I have only now seen the SATURDAY REVIEW of 25 July. In it there is a criticism of a book entitled, "Bell the Cat, or who destroyed the Scottish Abbeys?" In this paper the sentence occurs—"Protestants in Scotland were iconoclasts everywhere. They destroyed most of the churches, and every cathedral but one".

Sir Walter Scott, in his preface to "Rob Roy", says they destroyed all but two of the cathedrals of Scotland in those ruthless times, namely Glasgow, and Kirkwall, and describes how S. Mungo's in Glasgow was saved. It happens that I have seen these two cathedrals, and with a feeling of sorrow on reflecting that only these two are to be seen, all the others having been devastated by those Scottish iconoclasts.

Yours truly,

MARY CLARKE.

"CROMWELL THE DESECRATOR."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Nottingham, 1903.

SIR,—It is so common a practice to lay at Cromwell's door every act of bygone vandalism in our churches, although it is not reasonable to hold him responsible even for all the vandalism of his time, that no such charge against him as that cited by Miss Kate Santley should be entertained without direct evidence connecting him with it.

Mere rumour, even if in print in the local guide book, is not to be trusted. I have repeatedly been told, in the modern nave of Bristol Cathedral, that its predecessor was destroyed by Cromwell. As a matter of fact the former nave was pulled down in 1526 and owing to the dissolution of monasteries was not rebuilt until 1877.

HAROLD LEWIS.

LEO XIII. AND ANGLICAN ORDERS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Dublin, 8 August, 1903.

SIR,—With reference to your article on Leo XIII., permit me to say that the late Pope was personally most anxious to take the "different view" you refer to, and when the Commission appointed to inquire into the validity of Anglican Orders reported against it, the Pope shook his head and hesitated for two months which he spent in prayer for guidance before he issued his celebrated and touching encyclical on the subject.

In this case the Pope was personally anxious to

decide in favour of the validity of Anglican Orders, yet his position as final judge and as the great Doctor and Supreme Pastor of the Catholic Church, after due deliberation and examination according to the constitution of the Church, demands that he put aside his own personal predilections and voice dogmatically the faith of the Church, which becomes his own unalterable faith also.

Perhaps it is not generally known that Mr. Gladstone was about the only man in England, so little had Cardinal Pecci at the time been heard of there, that was able to foretell with probability (correctly as the event proved) that Cardinal's succession to the Papacy. If my authority is wanted for these statements I can give it.

Your obedient servant,

T. J. HUNT.

HOW THE RESPECTABLE POOR ARE HOUSED: A CONCRETE CASE.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

London, 6 August, 1903.

SIR,—Slums, as generally understood, only house a small proportion of people. It is the dilapidated, broken-down, short-leased, semi-uppercrust sort of a house that harbours a huge population of doubly-fleeced, poor, but respectable people. If before this class of house, originally built for one family, were let out to three, four or more, it were made compulsory to render it suitable for its new purpose by making the necessary structural and sanitary additions, we should have less cause for cursing that bloodless, greedy, soulless monster, the slummy speculative landlord, and his filthy rent-collecting, and equally conscienceless, agent.

I will give my one fact. The house is assessed at £54 a year. There is no resident or deputy landlord. There are ten rooms, a scullery, and broken-down conservatory. There are four families in the house, sometimes one and sometimes two or three "men-lodgers". The two kitchens and two parlours are let to one family at fifteen shillings a week: the two "drawing-rooms" to another at nine shillings; the two rooms above at nine shillings; and the topmost two at six shillings. That is, in all, a rental of thirty nine shillings a week. There are living in this house eighteen souls. Where do they sleep? Here are the facts: Sleeping in the front kitchen—two boys, ages about 9 and 4. Back kitchen (no direct light nor ventilation) two boys, about 16 and 14. Front parlour—"the young man lodger". Back parlour, man and his wife. (This room leads into the broken-down conservatory and is sublet, when they can find other "young men lodgers".) This completes the one batch. The second family occupies the drawing-room floor. In the front room sleeps the man, his wife, two boys, ages about 15 and 10, and two girls, ages about 17 and 8. The back, living room sleeps one boy, about 12. The two upper floors (second and third) are occupied, respectively, by an elderly woman and her grown-up son, and a man and his wife. The water and sanitary fittings are at the bottom of the house—as originally fitted up for the one family.

It is no use asking, why do people put up with it, because there is no alternative. The question is, How long is it going to last? And of what stuff are we really made, when we bewail the lot of others in other countries, while under our very noses we have as bad if not worse conditions existing. Truly, the pluck of the people is degenerating, and it is showing itself not only at the bottom but at the top of our society, or we should not be so afraid to tackle, fight if need be, for our country's rights. It is disgustingly obvious that our leading men are afraid of the U.S.A. Why should we be?

Your obedient servant,

AN UNPREJUDICED ENGLISHMAN.

PRICES IN GERMANY AND ENGLAND.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

29 Carlisle Mansions, S.W., 8 August.

SIR,—Having passed the greater part of the last two years in Germany I can bear witness to the truth of Mr. Droege's statement. Bread is considerably cheaper in Germany than in England, while all cakes, tarts, and articles of confectionery, despite the heavy duties both on grain and sugar, are enormously cheaper. I may add that both the bread and the other articles I have mentioned are excellent.

I am, Sir, yours truly,

R. K. HERVEY.

GENERAL D'ORDEL OUT-DAWDLED.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—Since your review of that admirable little work "Tactics and Military Training" by Major-General George d'Ordel, another military brochure has been issued by yet another "General", which under the modest title of "Tactical Lessons from the South African War, 1899-1902", claims in a series of thirty-one concise paragraphs to afford "a useful line of thought which every officer will do well to work out for himself". Obviously I cannot ask you to give space for more than a brief reference to some of the gems in this most astounding compilation.

First we are told that "a battle begins with the endeavour of each side to outflank the other and ends with one side breaking through the enemy's lines". The talented author apparently wishes to go one better than General d'Ordel in his "exceptional case of troops meeting when both hostile forces are stationary", and here supplies us with a possible instance of a stationary force which endeavours to outflank and break through the enemy's lines.

This new tactician's views on cavalry may be taken to be the outcome of the recent onslaught on our cavalry by a party of infantry generals who truly think, as well as act, at a walk and in fact "dawdle". In paragraph 10 we read that "cavalry is merely one of the many sources of intelligence"! Whilst in paragraph 11, "In reconnoitring, one man on a bicycle will effect more than a cavalry division." This is pretty strong, no account is apparently taken of the possibility of the one man's bicycle being punctured, or of his fate should he puncture the screen of the cavalry division and thus gain some "intelligence" respecting the relative merits of the enemy's lance and sword for puncturing purposes. To paraphrase General d'Ordel, "One cyclist has nothing to fear from a cavalry division" and if he keeps his head, body and tyres from being punctured he will have it at a decided disadvantage. The conduct of the infantry attack is also delightful. In paragraph 13, "Each man must rush forward without in any way considering his neighbour, only thinking of the lie of the ground". And later on in paragraph 16, "The closer one gets to the enemy, the slower will the advance be and the more cautious must every man become till eventually he has to crawl along on his belly." This paragraph is obviously intended to be read in conjunction with paragraph 21, where it is laid down that in the attack, "infantry must be trained to move very quickly".

This marvellous brochure winds up with the following "What is required is to awaken the intellect, strengthen it, lead it the right way and recognise its existence". Surely this last paragraph should be marked "to be read in conjunction with the whole of the pamphlet".

Now this precious effusion is not the wild vapourings of a military monomaniac or, like d'Ordel's immortal work, intended to expose and cast ridicule upon the drivell supplied "by authority" for the instruction of officers and men. It is the deliberately expressed tactical views of one of the men who have been specially selected to command and train in peace time the troops whom they will lead in war. Further, he is a staff college graduate.

Yours,

BOBSTÄDT VON KRÜGER.

REVIEWS.

THE CROOKED MARQUESS.

"The Great Marquess: Life and Times of Archibald, 8th Earl, and 1st (and only) Marquess of Argyll (1607-1661)." By John Willcock. Edinburgh: Oliphant Anderson and Ferrier. 1903. 10s. net.

WE always imagined that "the great Marquess" was the accepted description of Montrose, and we trust that hasty purchasers of this dreary volume may not be disappointed when they find they have paid for a monograph of Argyll. The author admits that it is "only possible to form a more favourable estimate of him than that held in many quarters by regarding him rather as an almost independent potentate than as a Scotch noble and a subject of Charles I". As a subject, "those who would fain rise above mere partisan prejudice are inclined to think he cannot escape condemnation for disloyalty". Mr. Willcock, however, "declines to accept the censure passed on him even as thus modified",—in other words, if we may borrow his own clumsy expression, he would not "fain rise above mere partisan prejudice". The whole of his book certainly bears out this unusually frank confession. He makes very free with unsuitable adjectives, such as "noble" and "pathetic", but his narrative can only serve to intensify the displeasure of all who believe in honour and order. To give Mr. Willcock his due, he inclines to apologies rather than to panegyric throughout, and, if we ignore his feebly extenuating comments, we may deduce a fairly accurate portrait of his evil hero.

He was a bad son, a bad father and a bad subject; untrue to his King, he could not even keep faith with his fellow-rebels; a notorious coward, he was relentlessly cruel, torturing and slaying all who came within his power; a narrow Presbyterian bigot, he sought alliance with Popish France to embarrass his own Sovereign, who had overwhelmed him with favours; fawning in adversity, he became insolent in power; his greed was insatiable, his craft unsurpassed, his ingratitude monumental; he was probably a forger; certainly a traitor and murderer; so long as history remains, he will be remembered as the man who sold his King. When at last he paid the forfeit of his crimes on the scaffold he died unmourned, a fit object for the execration of all posterity.

Mr. Willcock conscientiously sets down most of his hero's defects and then glosses over them in a manner which does more credit to his audacity than to his judgment. He frankly describes the "gley'd Marquess" with his little squinting eyes, red hair, long nose and "insignificance of manner", and ingenuously extenuates the "moral dubiety which people, probably quite unjustly, often associate with this particular defect of vision". But he fails to clear Argyll's character from the charge of being as crooked as his eyes. In 1638 the Marquess signed an Address to the King, promising to "sacrifice life and fortune in maintaining the royal authority and in repressing all who should attempt to disturb the peace of Church and Kingdom". A few months later he encouraged the General Assembly to rebellion and heresy, announcing that "he had always been on their side, but had refrained from open acknowledgment of the fact in order that in secret ways he might aid the common cause". In 1640 he invited the Earl of Athol to a parley and gave him a safe conduct, then took him in an ambush and sent him prisoner to Edinburgh. Mr. Willcock pretends that the evidence on this point is slight, and contends that, in any case, "we still owe it to Argyll to say that the standard of honour among public men of that time was unhappily not high enough to prevent the occurrence of such acts of treachery". In 1641, under the auspices of Argyll, the Scottish Parliament extorted all manner of concessions from the King, and expressed themselves perfectly satisfied, assuring his Majesty that "he was departing a contented prince from a contented people". In 1643 they decided to invade England in support of the rebel arms, though, as Mr. Willcock says, "nothing had happened since to undermine their security or to

threaten the overthrow of their dearly-prized liberty". Here again we trace the hand of crooked Argyll. Instances of his treachery might be multiplied indefinitely by drawing merely on his admiring biographer. We will content ourselves with quoting an opinion, which is bound to carry weight. His own father said to the King, "Sir, I must know this young man better than you can do . . . he is a man of craft, subtlety, and falsehood, and can love no man; and if ever he finds it in his power to do you a mischief, he will be sure to do it".

Nor need we go beyond the present volume to convict Argyll of cowardice. Mr. Willcock charges Dr. Gardiner with exaggeration for saying that the Marquess "was absolutely without personal courage: he could not look upon a hostile array without being overcome by sheer terror". But his campaigns against Montrose confirm the suspicion. When he returned to Edinburgh in 1644 he received a formal vote of thanks, "and a malicious remark was made in connexion with it, that it was all the more deserved because there had been so little bloodshed". In the following winter Montrose appeared near Inverary, and "with all haste the Marquess [of Argyll] got on board a fishing-boat and saved himself by flight" from the stronghold of his clan. A little later he was surprised at Inverlochy and made an equally hasty escape in his barge, leaving his soldiers to fend for themselves. Mr. Willcock excuses him because he had hurt his arm and argues that he could not have been a coward because he was zealous for the Covenant in a dangerous hour, and because he was calm at his trial and on the scaffold. After the battle of Kilsyth, however, he rode in a panic for twenty-five miles nor desisted from his flight until he reached Newcastle by ship. Mr. Willcock has the effrontery to compare these disgraceful incidents with the conduct of Montrose after Philiphaugh, when "with a handful of cavalry he broke through the enemy and, like his rival, fled for his life". Even when he was a prisoner on a charge of high treason and complete arrangements were made for his escape, Argyll proved too timid to take advantage of them. When he did not break down on the scaffold, his great friend, the Earl of Crawford, said that such courage "must have been due to some supernatural assistance, for it was not Argyll's natural temper".

His acts of savage cruelty are too well known to require enumeration. Even his apologist is perplexed. Mr. Willcock's methods may well be gauged by his comments upon the destruction of "the bonnie house of Airlie", an ordinary dwelling occupied at the time by a sick lady and some servants. The circumstances, he says, "certainly exhibit Argyll in an unfavourable light, if the narrative containing them can be relied upon". As neither Mr. Willcock nor anyone else can cast any doubt on this narrative, the reservation is disingenuous. "We are not sufficiently acquainted with the circumstances", he continues, condoning by faint blame, "to condemn or acquit Argyll on the charge of undue severity in warfare";—a polite euphemism for the butchery of women and babes!—"If any of our readers are inclined to judge, from the number of unpleasant stories which cluster round the action of Argyll on this raid, that the campaign must have been one of somewhat exceptional brutality as wars go, we may at once admit that this is very probable. Civil war is always more ruthless than any other", &c. &c. Those of us who are acquainted with these "unpleasant stories" and the evidence in support of them must experience a thrill of indignation at the unctuous complacency of a gentleman who is elsewhere very free with Protestant cant. The book, however, scarcely merits indignation, for it breaks no new ground, contributes nothing to the science or philosophy of history, is destitute of literary ability, utterly fails in its attempt to whitewash a scoundrel, and may not aspire to a long life. It is only remarkable as a monument of misplaced energy.

NAVAL ACHIEVEMENT.

"The Royal Navy: A History." By Sir Will. Laird Clowes. (Vol. VII.) London: Sampson Low. 1903. 25s. net.

LORD SPENCER addressing the Navy Records Society very truly observed that the History of the Navy is the general history of the country: this sounds platitude, but doubtless what was meant is that the history of the country can only be understood by those who take the trouble to learn something of the life and work of the Navy whereon "the wealth, safety and strength of the kingdom chiefly depend". The excuse can no longer be pleaded that the story of the sea can only be pieced together after painful research, for now that Sir W. Laird Clowes has completed his task he has put it in the power of everyone to get a clear view of naval history down to the end of the nineteenth century without any necessity for turning to library catalogues.

The last century was one of such rapid change, especially during its latter half, that it is not too much to say the seaman of 1900 is further from the sailor of 1850 than the latter from his predecessor of 1500. A more or less hazy idea prevails that this is so, but to most people an ironclad is an ironclad, and it is difficult to force home the lesson that the modern ship is obsolete long before her life is out. Turning to the latest additions to the fleet, it requires imagination to realise that less than fifty years ago, wooden ships of all classes continued to be built. Not till 1859 was the "Warrior" laid down with her thickest armour 4.5 inches, her heaviest guns 95-cwt. 68-pounders. Since that year iron has made way for steel, breechloaders have ousted muzzleloaders, the broadside has given place to the barbette. Only a few years ago the "Téméraire" with her 25-ton 11-inch muzzle-loading guns,—wrongly given in the text as 12-inch,—was looked upon as a first-class fighting machine yet at the commencement of the twentieth century her name disappears from the Navy List. She deserves remembrance as the mother—or grandmother—of the standard type of battleship of to-day. The opening chapter of this volume gives a good idea of the continuous conflict between gun and armour which has brought about the new state of things, but the majority of readers will pass on quickly to see what service ships and men have been engaged on during the last fifty years. The period covered is one in which ships have been pitted against forts, but have had no opportunity to try their fighting strength upon the high seas. What then of the men? The record will stand comparison with anything gone before. Scarcely a year has passed without a bit of a "scrap" somewhere: a few lines in the dailies notice the little affair; it is only police business but generally leaves a heartache in some English home. These "scraps" bring no medal—little glory—but afford no mean test of what officers and men are made of. They make a tale of duty conscientiously performed for the sake of duty; this at all events is clear and answers the question "What of the men?" What made Rawson, mortally wounded at Tel-el-Kebir, ask simply "Did I not lead them straight?" What prompted the chaplain's "Steady men, steady" as the "Victoria" made ready for her last plunge? The guiding spirit of the service—the sense of duty.

Mention of the "Victoria" recalls the horror with which the country heard of the disaster and it is natural that Sir William should write of it at some length. It is absolutely impossible to throw new light on the facts. Sir George Tryon has gone where courts-martial are not; he alone could solve the mystery, and it is futile for Sir William to try to make out a case with the whole weight of authority in the scale against him. His argument is plausible enough and the grounds for his belief not unreasonable, could we assume the Commander-in-Chief to be ignorant of the technical interpretation of the words "preserving the order of the fleet". All the leader of the second division had to do was to obey the signal made to him, but looking at the relative position of the two divisions, his hesitation is accounted for. It follows that the view held by the author can only be substantiated by a special pleading which does not carry conviction.

The most prominent feature in the last half-century is the extent to which seamen have been employed ashore. There has been no war of importance without a naval brigade: indeed, the Navy has undertaken more than one little land campaign—witness the operations against Fodeh Sillah and the expedition which ended in the destruction of Benin city. 1856 saw the opening of the second China war, from then to the anxious days of Ladysmith and Pekin, seamen have been constantly employed to do duty as Marines. Up country, far from salt water, in China, India, New Zealand, Egypt, South Africa, the roar of the naval gun has been heard and bluejackets have fought in the line alongside their comrades of the land forces. The sailor man has so often saved the situation that the fact is apt to be overlooked that he is an expensive article to manufacture, difficult to replace, and that the principle of denuding ships of men and guns is thoroughly wrong, and justifiable only in exceptional circumstances. The South African campaign gave officers and men a chance of showing they can march as well as fight. Grant's detachment with its 4.7 gun covered 797½ miles in 53 marching days, its best performance being 37 miles in 13 hours. Peel and Sotheby did wonders in India, but South Africa holds the record for sheer physical endurance. Thanks to Lord Methuen's chivalry the Navy found itself in the van at Graspan; of course it had no business there, but moral gain is often lost sight of in calculating material loss; zeal feeds on tradition, and Graspan was no inglorious day for sea-folk. The experience of Sir E. Seymour is unique: to have commanded a naval force composed of eight different nationalities in military operations on shore is without parallel in history. It is pleasant to read of the cordial good-will with which the little army worked under its British head. Special tribute is paid to the Germans whom stay-at-homes are so ready to abuse. The request of the Austrian senior officer that his men detached to Tientsin should be placed under the orders of the senior British officer there is particularly gratifying to our national vanity.

In the period under review ships have been employed on several occasions in attacks on batteries. The capture of the Taku forts in 1858 and 1900 and the bombardment of Alexandria recur to everybody, but the bombardment of Kagosima in 1863 during a typhoon and the forcing of the Simonoseki passage cost more in British life.

Diplomacy too often plays a part in the career of a naval officer and he is sometimes obliged to take responsibility, from which many a trained diplomatist might well shrink. The action of Admiral Noel in Crete was a good instance of readiness to take the bull by the horns, but Commander Johnstone's conduct, when, as Captain of the "Dryad", he confronted the whole power of France off Madagascar, with his single sloop, is a less well-known and even more conspicuous example of self-reliance. Some of the most gallant deeds of which these pages tell were performed in suppression of piracy and the slave trade; so well has the Navy done its police work, that dhow and junk seldom offer now a chance for promotion.

Sir Clements Markham has been given very little room in which to deal with the great work of the surveyors or to do justice to the men who went north to plant the Union Jack in the home of the polar bear. We close this last chapter with thoughts turned to those brave hearts still battling with the Antarctic ice. May they soon return in safety to open with a bright page the yet unmade history of the twentieth century.

RUSSIA FROM WITHOUT.

"Greater Russia." By Wirt Gerrare. London: Heinemann. 1903. 18s.

OF the many books which have recently appeared on Russia this is undoubtedly one of the pleasantest to read though it possesses none of the attributes which make for permanent value in literature. Its charm lies in its descriptive accounts of the country, and in the author's appreciation of Russian characteristics which are ably put before the reader by means of anecdote.

With Russian enterprise and activity in the Far East the author is well acquainted and the advice to be found regarding the making of treaties, the necessity for a statesmanship fitted to the century, is opportune. Merchants or manufacturers anxious to do business with Russia will find the advantages and disadvantages duly considered within these pages by one who has (at least theoretically) succeeded in mastering the intricacies of this somewhat complicated subject.

The assertion that the State in its attempt to improve the lot of the peasant has encouraged and revived village industries is hardly accurate. M. Witte's policy leans towards the creation of a specialised industry and encourages the huge factory with all that it implies. The zemstvos have for some time past worked energetically to infuse fresh life into the village industries (where they were falling off) and have established depôts in many of the large towns to which the peasants can send their goods to be sold. Stores have been opened in the nearest market towns for those living out of reach of the raw material and special facilities afforded for its purchase, but, so far, the State has withheld its helping hand. The following tale, not told for the first time, gives a very fair idea of the position and attitude of the factory-hand who has not broken with the "mir". "Once a labour agitator from the West tried to persuade a factory-hand to federate labour as had been achieved in the West, and so obtain higher wages and shorter hours. The Russian thought the shorter hours and better pay excellent; he wished to hear more of the fortunate workers in the west of Europe and asked how much land each worker had. The agitator answered that in England the workers did not possess land. "Then how does he feed his cows?" asked the Russian. "He has no cows to feed", admitted the agitator. "No cows! Pshaw! You'll be telling me he has no horse next!"

On the subject of the discovery of secret railways we are most sceptical. The Russian Secret Service is far too efficiently carried out to admit of any such possibility by an outsider. Everyone who has travelled in the country knows the importance of a judicious bestowal of tips, but there are circumstances when no man would take upon himself the consequences of having overlooked the presence of a stranger, even in disguise. The existence of a new and important strategical railway might be communicated by one of the engineers employed in its construction; in this case it would not be a discovery, nor could the publication of the news as such be considered a very creditable achievement. The note of alarm in regard to the spread of Russian orthodoxy argues a superficial knowledge, historical and social, of the two races in question. On page 288 we find:—"It is possible the Russian Church may attain a large measure of success. Representing primitive and communistic Christianity particularly, it possesses essentials which appeal to all Christian sects, and now that the Roman Church has passed its zenith of temporal power, and Anglican Protestantism is sterile, the next great religious revival may emanate from the Eastern Church. A priest of the power of Sergius, the Father John of Kronstadt, working outside Russia could awaken the West. The commercialism of the United States of America, of England and her colonies, is widening the gulf between the classes, is making the few rich, richer—the many poor, poorer still. The despairing poor of all Anglo-Saxondom might see in 'Orthodoxy' an aspect of Christianity not only new to them, but one they could accept. At the right psychologic moment some such wave of religious emotialism [printer's error?] as the world has several times seen will again quicken Europe; will roll over the American continent from Cape Nome to Key West, spread to the British island nations, and unite all to one creed. If it should be Russian Orthodoxy that triumphs, Russia will become the world-power. That, for Anglo-Saxons especially, is the political danger of Russia's ideal 'world-policy'." Rather, is that not, for the English-speaking nations especially, the greatest safeguard from Russia's ideal "world-policy"? This paragraph contains so many weak points that it is quite impossible, for lack of space, to take them separately. Some measure of

comfort may however be derived from the following statement. "It is indisputable that Russia intends to extend her dominion wherever she can; it is as certain that the freedom-loving Anglo-Saxon will be among the last ever to become Russified. Perhaps before the apparently inevitable great war is commenced one nation or the other will have already succumbed."

KELTIA.

"The Literature of the Kelts." By Magnus Maclean. London: Blackie. 1902. 7s. 6d. net.

TO tell the story of Celtic poetry and romance would be a fascinating task, but the time to tell it in one volume is not yet. For much of the literary lore of the Celtic nations still lies buried in manuscripts. For many a day it seems to us the specialist must go on deciphering and elucidating. Some day, however, the time must come, when scientific scholarship will have said its last word, and then the genius will arise who will explain Keltia to the world. We doubt however if the said genius will come either from a Scotch or Welsh college. Possibly he will add a new glory to the land of the "Four Masters"—more probably he will arise in the Armorica of Chateaubriand and Renan.

The present ambitious attempt on the part of a Scotch professor to accomplish the task has turned out a volume that is in some ways both useful and attractive. Indeed if he had confined himself to the Kelts of Scotland and of early Ireland, we should have had little but praise for him. He has however affected to write on the literature of all Celtic races; and it therefore becomes necessary to show that in respect to the literature of the Brittonic Kelts (that is the Kelts of Cornwall, Wales and Brittany) he offers at his best nothing but a meagre and unsatisfactory compilation of facts already known to anyone possessed of a rudimentary knowledge of the subject. To unhappy Cornwall, the land of Tristan and Iseult and of the historic Arthur, he vouchsafes only the quarter of a page. He further degrades her ancient language to the rank of a dialect; and shows a pitiful ignorance of the fact that some interesting relics of her ancient religious drama (as for instance the life of S. Merrasch) have been printed and translated into English. Religious plays were acted in the Cornish fields in the seventeenth century and a Cornishman, William Jordan, whose name the Professor does not mention, wrote at that time a vernacular drama on the creation of the world, now translated. The existence of a religious drama in the post-Reformation period distinguishes Cornwall and Brittany not only from France and England, but from the sister Celtic nations. It would, one might have thought, have been the pride of a Celtic enthusiast to have shown how the Breton and Cornish religious dramas are distinguished by an almost total absence of the coarse buffoonery and ribaldry, that make the average mediæval Miracle Play such unpleasant reading. This author however has not troubled to ascertain the names of some of the most important of Cornish manuscripts.

Hardly more satisfactory is his treatment of Welsh literature. The space assigned to the subject is grossly inadequate; and the discussion is slight and inaccurate. But here the author is not solely nor perhaps mainly to blame. It is with real surprise that we learn from the preface that the chapter relating to Wales has been "reviewed" in manuscript by an eminent Welsh Kelticist, Professor Rhys. It is no less than a scandal that Mr. Maclean's blunders on Welsh matters should go forth to the world stamped with his high imprimatur.

The fact is that judged from these pages our Professor does not possess the most elementary knowledge of Welsh history or literature. He is of opinion that in 1451 (more than a hundred and fifty years after the conquest of Wales by Edward I.) a certain Prince Griffith was reigning over South Wales and holding an Eisteddfod at Carmarthen. The fact is that this Carmarthen Eisteddfod was held by a Welsh country gentleman Griffith ap Nicholas (possibly Mr. Maclean is confusing him with Griffith ap Conan who came in the eleventh century an exile from Erin to win a throne in Gwynedd) who later on fell fighting for the White Rose at Mortimer's Cross. Again on page 218 he coolly

writes (and Professor Rhys passes his slip) that the "Myvyrian Archaology of Wales" contains all the chief productions of Welsh literature—a statement as accurate as would be the affirmation that the Rolls series contains all the chief productions of English historical literature. The truth is that though it contains a few things of later date the Myvyrian archaology practically prints Welsh literature only to the year 1300 A.D. It may truly be that the Archaology contains all the Welsh books of which our Professor has ever heard. It is significant that he mentions neither Dafydd ap Gwilym nor Vicar Prichard. The following passage will also amuse and puzzle Welshmen. "Interested scholars, among them Aneurin Owen, Thomas Price, William Rees and John Jones set themselves to finish the work of the Myvyrian peasant." Why Owen Jones who claimed descent from one of the royal tribes of Wales, and who certainly carried on a successful business as a furrier in Thames Street, should be described as a "peasant" we know not. Nor have we the remotest notion as to any Welsh scholar of that date of the name of William Rees. A person of the name of Rees was certainly a member of the firm that published the Myvyrian Archaology—but we know of no other services that he rendered to Welsh literature. The particular John Jones to whom we fancy our Professor refers is usually known in Wales by his bardic name of Tegid, and thereunder he should have appeared here. There are, we may inform the Professor, a large number of John Joneses in Wales. One small point we may add to show how out of date are some of the statements here. We are told that the book of Aneurin was bought from a Mrs. Powell by Sir Thomas Phillips. The important point to note about it, is that it now lies in the Free Library of Cardiff. It is further untrue to say that modern Welsh poetry is the product of workmen, who have never been taught to read and write their language in the schools. They have at least been taught this in the Sunday Schools. Also we object strongly to our Professor's invidious selection of certain living Welsh scholars to the exclusion of others. He never mentions Professor Owen M. Edwards, nor his "Story of Wales". If he would read the latter book, he would considerably revise his views on the subject of Welsh literature.

His treatment of Brittany is as unsatisfactory as that of Cornwall and Wales. He never mentions the "Pardons" nor does he seem to be aware that it is exceedingly doubtful whether many of the poems published by Villemarqué originated in Brittany.

On early Ireland he is interesting, and his account of S. Patrick is exceedingly well done. His chapter on the origins of the Celtic race is also satisfactory; but we think that he might have said more on the Keltic-speaking Iberians, who in the opinion of some writers form a considerable part of the modern Welsh nation. He has much to say that is interesting on modern Keltic studies and on Keltic manuscripts. We like him best however, when he is among his own Highlanders. He has told as it was never before told of the poetic inspiration that led the Gael to the glorious tragedy of the '45. Very brilliant is his sketch of Iaiin Lom. To read the verses on the battle of Inverlochy even in the English tongue, is to know

"Mightier was the verse of Iaiin
Hearts to nerve, to kindle eyes,
Than the claymore of the valiant,
Than the counsel of the wise".

THE COLONIST THEN AND NOW.

- "Self-Government in Canada and How It Was Achieved." By F. Bradshaw. London: P. S. King. 1903. 10s. 6d. net.
 "The New Nation." By Percy F. Rowland. London: Smith, Elder. 1903. 7s. 6d.
 "The Coming of the Colonist." By C. D. Brownfield. London: Dent. 1903.
 "Selected Speeches of Sir William Molesworth." Edited by H. E. Egerton. London: Murray. 1903. 15s. net.

IT is a present-day boast that we know the colonist as he was never known by our fathers and grandfathers—certainly as he was never known in the time of

Sir William Molesworth, who was one of the pioneers of a more enlightened colonial policy. "Treat the colonists as rational beings" was the refrain of his speeches. To-day there is little friction between Downing Street and colonial governors and governments and the Briton at home now seldom offends the susceptibilities of the Briton abroad by crass ignorance of all things colonial. It is, as Mr. Brownfield says in his delightfully unconventional book, "the Colonial Era, and men's minds are busy with colonial problems and colonial possibilities". The colonist whom we know, however, is not necessarily a fair sample of the colonist who is bent on working out his destiny, not in a house in Park Lane, but on the lands and under the skies which are as unlike those of the Metropolis as latitude and society can make them. In Mr. Brownfield's view we do not yet really know the true colonist; whether we are quite as much in the dark concerning him as Mr. Brownfield imagines, may be open to question, but one thing is certain: Mr. Brownfield would have been deprived of the excuse for an able though rather fantastic study if he were not to assume that we are still lamentably ignorant of the thoughts and lives and aspirations of the men of Australasia, Canada and South Africa. Is it true to say that "we sing the Empire but think in islands"? That we do not always impress the colonist with "the high imperial ideal" is no doubt as true as that a certain section in England fails to grasp imperial possibilities and imperial realities, but as the colonist has come to "think in continents" so the majority of Britons may be trusted when occasion demands to show themselves as intelligent as Mr. Brownfield's pattern settler.

While Mr. Brownfield deals with the colonist in general as he is, Mr. Bradshaw assists us to study the colonist as he was in Canada sixty years since and Mr. Rowland affords us an idea of the colonist as he found him in Australia recently. The men who were instrumental in making the new nation in Canada were not without influence on the development of Australia in days when the possibility that the southern colonies would ever become a "commonwealth" was the nebulous dream of a few far-seeing men, among whom Sir William Molesworth should be numbered. Durham's report, with which Mr. Bradshaw is mainly concerned, brought peace and contentment to Canada and paved the way to federation in 1867: how much that report affected the views of British statesmen and politicians as to the proper method of governing distant colonies all who have interested themselves in colonial history are aware. It induced Molesworth so materially to modify his views of Canadian affairs that Mr. Egerton deems it necessary to omit a particular speech from his useful collection. Sir William frankly confessed that until he read that report he never fully understood the condition of Britain's transatlantic colonies. Wakefield, who was Durham's right hand man in Canada, was mainly responsible for the settlement of South Australia and New Zealand, and Mr. Bradshaw's account of Canada in the late 'thirties and early 'forties frequently has a certain bearing on Mr. Rowland's description of the things he saw and heard in Australia in the first year of its federation. The Dominion and the Commonwealth are almost as unlike in their constitutions as in their climates; both have developed into "new nations" under the same imperial régime, and both may usefully be studied just now when issues big with the possibilities of the future are coming up for settlement. They serve to illustrate the varying needs of the Empire and to impress on the mind the essential differences of countries and people whose loyalty to the Crown is their chief possession in common. Incidentally Mr. Rowland shows that the sun of Australia and the snows of Canada make for the same end in the character of the settlers. He denies that the Australians are wanting in grit as is sometimes said, owing to the climate. "The truth is that heat has trials in its train at least as severe as those of cold."

Mr. Bradshaw's volume tells for the first time in some detail the story of Lord Durham's report and really amounts to a life of the author of that report. It is a fairly full record of the difficulties Durham had to contend against both at home where the Whigs wished

only to be rid of a troublesome colony and in Canada which he found in a state bordering on anarchy. Durham's difficulties would have prevented the majority of men from attempting to do more than smooth things out. He was made of sterner stuff. He belonged to the reformers at home and regarded it as his business to reconstruct the social and political fabric of the two Canadas. He lifted them on to a higher plane, with the result that the provincial and separatist element in Canada became smaller and smaller till it disappeared in the Dominion. Mr. Rowland's complaint of Australia to-day is that it has been so long dependent on England as to have lost in some degree the sense of moral responsibility. He doubts whether the reliance on England is good for the character of the race, but why it should be worse for the men of New South Wales to depend on Great Britain than for the men, say of the Hebrides, to find security in the strength of the whole country he does not explain. Yet Mr. Rowland is no separatist and is only anxious that statesmanship should take advantage of present sentiment to cement the bond between Great Britain and the colonies. He has not much to say on fiscal questions, but one sentence is noteworthy: "England's partial adherence to a superannuated fallacy is filling Australian shops with American instead of English goods." The superannuated fallacy does not make for that imperial ideal which in their various ways is kept in view alike by Mr. Brownfield, by Mr. Bradshaw and by Mr. Rowland.

THE HUMAN RECORD SURVEYED.

"The World's History: a Survey of Man's Record." Edited by Dr. H. F. Helmholz. Vols. III. and VII. London: Heinemann. 1903. 15s. net.

IT is difficult to give too much praise to these two volumes, and to the enterprise and public spirit of Mr. Heinemann in placing them within the reach of the English-speaking public in so attractive a form. Histories of the world are usually mere epitomes, they have no claim to original research or independent thought, but are bare records of events, more or less systematically arranged. This is not the case with the gigantic work of Dr. Helmholz, of which these volumes are a translation. Not only are they thoroughly abreast of the latest knowledge, and brought up to the present day, but they are characterised by bold and original treatment, and are therefore not only illuminating but stimulating. The attention of the reader is directed as much to ethnology as to history, while social and economical problems receive as much consideration as those which are purely political. Our only criticism is, that, the work being written by Germans from a German point of view, it is difficult to make everything clear in a translation, especially where there is much of an abstract character, and where modern problems are always present to the mind of the writer.

The third volume is concerned with Asia and Africa, and contains four chapters. The first of these presents a masterly generalisation of the various migrations of Semites into the districts of Western Asia, and brings into one view the history of the Babylonians, the Assyrians, the Persians, the Hittites, the Phœnicians and the Jews, while the second traces the whole narrative of Islam from its beginning to the present time. The first chapter might be usefully reprinted separately, and used as a text-book, as it deals with facts, which are imperfectly studied, while their knowledge is indispensable to the proper comprehension of Ancient History. Dr. Hugo Winckler, the author, gives to the civilisation of Babylon its proper importance, while he corrects the traditional misconceptions which attach to the name Phœnicians. He shows that the Greeks exaggerated the influence of the Phœnicians, and that a narrow strip of sea coast could not have been the source of a great national civilisation. They certainly did not invent the alphabet, the credit of which is due to the Babylonians, nor can they be credited with the discovery of purple or glass. Indeed Tyre and Sidon, each seated on an island, were very small places, not larger than a good-sized square or a small park, and their harbours could only receive a few ships, which we

should call boats. The culture of the Phœnician towns can lay no claim to independent evolution, nor can it be distinguished from that of the other Canaanites. The third chapter deals with Africa from the Stone Age to the end of the Boer war, and the fourth with Egypt from the earliest times to the death of the Khalifa.

The seventh volume is concerned with very different topics, which are treated with equal mastery. The first chapter describes the economic development of Western Europe, from the Crusades to the present day. After a brilliant account of the Hansa, we are introduced to the capitalists of the middle ages, of whom the Fuggers of Augsburg were a type. We are told that it was a tradition of the family not to divide the wealth of the various members, but to keep it together in one mass, governing it from a central point. It was also an established principle not to put any other capital into an undertaking except that belonging to the family, and when that was departed from the prosperity of the house began to decline. The second chapter traces the history of the Reformation from its earliest origin in the fourteenth century to the settlement of Europe in the Peace of Westphalia, while the fortunes of Western Christianity down to the present day are dealt with in the chapter which follows. The fourth chapter is very remarkable. It is concerned with the social question, and presents a masterly review of its history, from the beginning of the factory system down to our own day. The fortunes of the social question in England, France, Germany and other European countries are narrated in separate sections, and the chapter concludes with a retrospect of the controversy and a forecast of the future. The purely political aspects of the period are relegated to the fifth chapter, which is entitled, "The rise of the Great Powers" and is concerned with European history from 1650 to 1780. In this we read of events to which universal histories generally confine themselves, the Fronde, the Great Rebellion, the Revolution of 1688, the Monarchy of Louis XIV., the War of the Spanish Succession, and the Dominion of Frederick the Great.

In this comprehensive work, we do not know which to admire most, the erudition upon which it is based, the broad philosophical standpoint from which it is composed, or the boldness with which its novel conclusions are asserted. It is a monument both of the learning and of the philosophic spirit of the country which produced it. There are perhaps some defects; we should have liked a bibliography, because no trace is given of the sources from which the narrative is derived. But we are certain that the work will have a great effect in raising the standard of historic study, in giving it a proper direction, by showing how necessary the knowledge of the past is for forming a judgment upon the most important problems which beset us in the present.

NOVELS.

"My Japanese Wife." By Clive Holland. Everett. 1903. 3s. 6d.

This is a reprint of a little work which attracted some notice eight years ago, and purports to be an amended version of the original wherein an Englishman is made to describe his life at Nagasaki with a daughter of Japan for his wife. The story is pretty enough as a whole but is here and there a trifle tedious by reason of its author's frequent allusions to the "cicala's chirrup", and the introduction of such outrageous anomalies as the consumption of dog-meat at a banquet,—(a dish never seen in Japan)—Shinto monasteries,—(he means Buddhist)—and married women's costumes of brilliant hue,—canary-tinted belts, peach-coloured gowns, and "bifurcated garments of ivory satin", all of which are quite impossible anywhere off the stage. Married women in Japan invariably dress in quiet greys and other unobtrusive colours, and the figures portrayed in "My Japanese Wife" are in this respect downright monstrosities. For "cicala" we must read "cicada"; the mistake occurs so often throughout the book as to be irritating. The name of the Japanese male friend so continually in evidence is presumably intended to be "Komatsu", but is everywhere misspelt

"Kotmasu", which is an altogether meaningless atrocity. The crowning blunder, however, consists in making the heroine talk the kind of "pidgin English" that a Chinawoman uses in Hong-Kong or Shanghai. Mûsmé (which by the way is not a Japanese woman's name at all, but an approximation to musumé, which means simply daughter or girl) is made to say "velly stlange" for "very strange". This, though characteristic of the Chinese pronunciation of English (because a Chinaman cannot sound the "r") is an error certainly not met with in Japan, for the difficulty that the Japanese experience is one of precisely the opposite kind—they rarely can sound the "l". But for the generally accurate picture that he has drawn of Nagasaki and its beautiful harbour, one would be disposed to doubt, sometimes, if Mr. Holland ever really studied Japanese life and character on the spot at all. It is claimed in the sub-title that we have here "a Japanese idyl", and as such the tale may be accepted and read. For a Japanese idyl need not be true to nature, it would seem, to be popular, provided that it agrees with a preconceived idea in the mind of the reader and is passably clever. It is high time, however, that more accurate notions regarding our allies in the Far East should prevail.

"Three Men and a Maid: a Tale of the Mysteries of Manoa." By Phill-Ludlow. London: Drane. 1903. 6s.

Treasure-hunts are too hackneyed a subject for fiction, unless relieved by some touch of imagination or a great wealth of sensational incident. Manoa has already been sufficiently exploited in fiction and Mr. Phill-Ludlow throws no fresh light on the subject. His characters are common adventurers, who succeed in annexing vast hordes of treasure with surprising ease. They disapprove of priestcraft and slay eighty-two priests because they had established a theocracy in Manoa. The author (presumably an American) has a very imperfect knowledge of English. Here is a typical sentence: "We will depart when the sun comes again, O great spirits, for thou the hairy men cannot harm". The author cannot conjugate the verbs lie and lay; he cannot distinguish between the second person singular and the second person plural (e.g. "the fools thou art"); and he only succeeds in irritating by the use of such senseless exclamations as "Scotland!" or "By the Great Gewillikins!" in the course of his narrative. It is to be hoped that he will not carry out his threat of publishing a sequel.

"Ardina Doran." By Susan Christian. London: Smith, Elder. 1903. 6s.

It is always stimulating when a woman writing about a woman strains our credulity without eliminating our interest. Ardina is often far from convincing. Her qualities do not in the least suggest her years, her actions deride them, and her final achievement in accepting the persistency of the man she does not love comes with the unprepared inappropriateness of a clown through a trapdoor into a serious comedy. If such a proceeding be true to life the narrator fails conspicuously to make it seem so. But the book is worth reading. If its romance has rather an air of masquerade, its observation is subtle, tolerant, and touched with a light, and at times, delightful humour. Its scenes are set in high places, rendered with a simplicity and familiarity for which one has cause to be grateful, seeing how garishly upholstered such settings as a rule are. Indeed the book throughout is better written and has a larger measure of charm and cleverness than others of its kind which have commanded a wide success.

"The Diary of a Year. Passages in the Life of a Woman of the World." Edited by Mrs. Charles Brookfield. London: Nash. 1903. 6s.

We can get up no enthusiasm over the mystery implied in the words "edited by" which appear on the title-page of this book. If Mrs. Brookfield be editor of these "passages" we are sorry. If she be author we are still more sorry. The diary is almost futile enough to be fact. Certainly if it be fiction it discloses a singular lack of inventive power. The author, indeed, in an epigrammatic moment states that "apples grew in Eden and have grown yearly since", but this

statement is insufficient to excuse the total absence of novelty in her pages. The recipe for a book of this kind would seem to be as follows. Take a lonely and misunderstood woman whose absent husband is a brute. Introduce romantic surroundings, an attractive man who appreciates her yearnings. Mix well together, throw in a kiss or two, shake violently and put in a cool place to settle.

"The Valkyries." By E. F. Benson. London: Dean. 1903. 6s.

One does not realise the advantage of telling this story of the Northern Gods, of whose table talk we are comparatively ignorant, in an intentionally inflated and archaic diction. "Then struck her a sudden wild thought", is not made more impressive as prose by the verb's unusual position, and "when thou came faint with weariness" only moves one by its quaint grammar. If the language of to-day is not adapted to deities, this language which never had a day is not likely to be more effective. The illustrations are, like the text, uniformly pretentious.

"Anglo-Americans." By Lucas Cleeve. London: Unwin. 1903. 6s.

Mr. Cleeve is convincing and may be congratulated on a vivid portraiture of American manners. He brings out the hardness of American women, the deceitfulness of American riches, the impudence of American society, and all this without animosity, rather as a judge than as an advocate. He is not a sympathetic writer but he is a trenchant critic. We cannot credit him with a power to arouse sympathy and he is deficient in distinction, but he may not be denied a measure of modern cleverness.

"Barbara Ladd." By Charles G. D. Roberts. Westminster: Constable. 1903. 6s.

"Barbara Ladd" begins at fifteen and finishes very little older, and her adventures are narrated in that kind of large-type observation suited to the mental eyesight of the young and simple. So very obvious and familiar often are its methods that one can only conceive them as designed for children. If otherwise one must congratulate America, whence the book seems to hail, on having an audience for fiction to which freshness of this sort can still appeal.

LAW BOOKS.

"Legal Tender." By S. P. Breckinridge. Chicago University Press. 1903.

In some respects this study may have the appearance of an economic rather than a legal treatise: but in fact Mr. Breckinridge deals with his subject from the constitutional and legal point of view. There is the economic side to the subject and it is thrown into stronger relief by a consideration of the legal aspects. Evidently the power assumed by governments of making some specific kind of money legal tender must exercise the greatest influence on the industry of a country; and the various ideas under which governments act and have acted are of considerable historic and economic importance. The questions asked therefore are what organ of the State has exercised the power of bestowing upon money the quality of being a legal tender? with respect to what kind of money or substitutes for money has the power been exercised? and what have been the reasons for such exercise? Mr. Breckinridge draws his examples from English and American experience; and he has written a very interesting and valuable treatise which is worth the attention of all who care for currency questions.

"Abstracts of Probate Acts in the Prerogative Court of Canterbury." Edited by John Matthews and George F. Matthews.

This volume is the first of the "Year Books of Probates" of the Prerogative Court of Canterbury which are to extend from the year 1630. It contains the years 1630-1634 inclusive. The issue to subscribers for copies before each volume is complete is one guinea: after completion the price is one guinea and a half. These valuable records do not appeal of course to any but the limited public of antiquaries and writers of family and county histories, but for them they are very valuable. They bring together many facts which would have to be searched for in out of the way places and particulars of wills often give the clue to what the literary searcher is in quest of. The book is accurate and trustworthy and deserves the patronage of the genealogist and all who have to do with family records.

"A Summary of the Law relating to Corporations. By Herbert M. Adler. London: Clowes. 1903. 9s.

Mr. Adler points out that since Grant's "Law of Corporations" was published in 1850 there has been no book dealing with the general principles relating to all classes of corporations public and private: and that work has been out of print for many years. It is the only book which has been known for some generations since Kyd his predecessor wrote in 1793. The law of corporations has been dealt with piecemeal by elaborate treatises on separate branches such as the municipal corporations and trading companies. Where other writers have approached the subject they have also written large books on selections of the topics which lend themselves to general treatment: such for instance as Mr. Brice on the "Doctrine of Ultra Vires" or "Lumley on Bye-laws". Mr. Adler has found it possible to treat of principles in quite a small book, but he has drawn his illustrations from all quarters of corporation law. It would make an admirable preliminary study for students who desire to gain a general view of the whole subject. We think however he might have said more on Quasi Corporations. In this connexion he mentions the Taff Vale case, the most important extension of the principles of the corporation to bodies which are not corporations. He might have done more than evade an explanation of the doubtful decision of the House of Lords by merely remarking that the advantage of being a corporation was greater one time than it is now, since a representative action can be brought in any division of the High Court.

"The Law relating to Auctioneers, House Agents and Valuers and to Commission." By Heber Hart. Second edition. Stevens & Sons. 1903. 15s.

We are glad to see that Dr. Hart's well-known book has reached its second edition. It is one of the best planned and most ably written of any of the books that have appeared on the subjects mentioned in the title-page. Its authority is recognised and it is equally valuable to the student and to the practitioner. This edition extends the scope of the original work by including several cognate topics not therein treated with the result that half of the present text consists of new matter.

"Mayne's Treatise on Damages." Seventh edition. By John D. Mayne and Lumley Smith. London: Stevens and Haynes. 1903. 28s.

It would be superfluous to say more of this notable book than that this is the seventh edition; and that its original author and his co-editor Judge Lumley Smith of the City of London Court have written the preface to this issue of it nearly fifty years after the issue of the first. The last edition was in 1899 and the present, carefully revised and corrected brings up to date all the English and Irish decisions bearing on the Law of Damages.

"Principles of the English Law of Contract." By William R. Anson. Tenth edition. Clarendon Press. 10s. 6d.

This also is a book of which one only need note the number of editions it has reached; and that all possible improvements have been made to keep it in the front rank of students' books, as it continues to be. There are few of the younger lawyers who have not been under a debt to Anson on Contract. Mr. Graham-Harrison has taken part in preparing this edition which Sir William Anson notes has been produced under the pressure of official duties at the Board of Education.

"Staple Inn and its History." By T. Cato Worsfold. London: Bumpus. 1903.

Mr. Worsfold has written a most interesting and valuable account of this quaintest of the Inns of Chancery now existing, but which it is grievous to have to confess seems likely amidst the "progress" of modern life soon to disappear altogether. The history of the Inn is as curious in its transition from being the headquarters of the staple trade of wool—from which it obtained its name—to being an inn for the reception of students and the teaching of law, as that of the abode of the Templars into the hands of the Benchers and Ancients of the Inner and Middle Temple. It has also many literary associations. Dr. Johnson amongst others lived there and a great part of "Rasselas" was written within its precincts. Mr. Worsfold brings together all that is known of its history; and his book is largely illustrated with views of the Inn itself, and with photographs of the celebrated men who were associated with it. It is a record for which all lovers of London antiquities will be grateful to Mr. Worsfold's pious labours.

AMERICAN LITERATURE.

Although the American publishers are more and more crowding the book-publishing season into the last three months of the year, the first half of 1903 has seen a very considerable number of volumes put forth. One journal notes the receipt for review of about eleven hundred books during the six months, and an exact and complete list would doubtless exceed that number not a little. Probably two-thirds or more of these volumes are American in origin. The trade journals report

(Continued on page 212.)

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also that the business of the spring was about a third better than that of the same season for 1902. But, while on the material side the making and selling of books thus go on apace, in literary quality and permanent value the result is not as a whole encouraging. Perhaps this is due in part to the fact that publishers are saving their strongest works for the autumn season; perhaps the mass of chaff is so large that the wheat seems small in comparison.

In fiction there have been many minor successes, a few studies of character or of locale really worth while, but nothing of such vigour and power as really to claim pre-eminence—nothing, for instance, as forceful as the late Mr. Norris' *The Pit*, already discussed in these columns. It may be added that this story has continued to occupy the attention of American readers, and that it has shared with Mrs. Ward's *Lady Rose's Daughter* the honour of holding first place in that peculiar feature of American literary periodicals, the "lists of best selling books". For quite different reasons equal popularity has been enjoyed by *Lovely Mary*, a sequel to *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch*, by Miss Alice Hegan, now Mrs. Rice. It would be unfair to compare such slight and unpretentious work with elaborate novels; these little books have a spontaneous gaiety, a cheerful love of humanity in low places, a faculty of making oddity of character seem real and natural that appeal pleasantly to a catholic taste and disarm technical criticism.

It is a little remarkable that so many of the better class of new novels should deal in one way or another with the South; and it is a hopeful sign that this should be so just when there seems to be a genuine effort on the part of the North and South to understand each other's ideals and ways of thinking. The most ambitious of these Southern romances is Mr. Thomas Nelson Page's *Gordon Keith*, a story of Virginia in Reconstruction days with, however, chapters depicting the mad rush for money success in New York, the design being to offer a sharp contrast between the old-time grace and dignity of the best Southern social life and the feverish, rough warfare of Northern industrial energy. Mr. Page's control of the perspective of construction is extremely unsatisfactory. Like many other American writers of capital short stories—and his *Meh Lady* and *Marse Chan* are among the very best of short stories—he does not seem to have the art of carrying on continuously a plot-interest through a long novel. Mr. James Lane Allen may always be looked to for delicacy and charm in writing and sentiment. His books are invariably marked by sincerity of feeling. His rather oddly named *The Mettle of the Pasture* is a Kentucky story and deals with both character and action in a manner worthy of the author of *A Kentucky Cardinal*. Still another Southern romance which may be cordially praised as a piece of excellent literary work is Mr. Garrott Brown's *A Gentleman of the South*; here we have a tragic episode growing out of the duelling code, in substance sad and even depressing, but rich in its social atmosphere and historical background: Mr. Brown has done admirable work as a writer on history and on sociological topics, but now makes his first attempt at fiction. Two other books should be named as belonging to this group of novels of the South: *Round Anvil Rock* by Mrs. Banks, whose *Oldfield* was recognised last year as really unusual because of its gentle humour and placid sentiment, and Miss Murfee's *A Spectre of Power*. The first-named is a dainty love story of the early days of Kentucky with an historical background and a singular but quite possible depicting of a union of rough conditions of life with true refinement of character; the second, by an author well received by the reading public some years ago but not lately much in evidence, deals with episodes of the French and Indian War.

Another group of novels have in common the fact that instead of dealing with passion, with dramatic situations or with plot-complications, they concern themselves rather with literary workmanship and try to present character in shifting lights. Such is *His Daughter First* by Mr. Arthur Sherburne Hardy, who has filled acceptably important diplomatic missions abroad since his earlier novels, *But Yet a Woman* and *Passe Rose*, were published. Mr. Hardy's new book introduces us to an agreeable circle of New York friends; and the inter-play of their talk, never forcedly epigrammatic, is constantly piquant and clever. The reader who hopes for excitement will be sadly disappointed; those who enjoy refined conversation and shrewd social side-lights will find much that is pleasing. Miss Alice Brown's *The Mannerings* also is subtle in character-study and unshrinkingly honest in its reproduction of the realities of modern life, but it also is lacking in story-interest and is clumsily constructed. Chiefly it is a story of marital infelicity, in which a woman of strong intellect is mated with a dull and unresponsive husband. Another phase of the ever-recurring question, What makes a true marriage? is to be found in the anonymous *Kempton-Wace Letters*. The author (there is internal evidence that the authorship is American) discusses the nature of love through a series of letters interchanged between a young American professor of economics, who is a materialist and opportunist, and an English poet who sees love from the ideal and spiritual sides. The psychology and philosophy of love and life are analysed keenly and often with witty thrusts; while the story-

element is afforded by the attempt of the materialist to put his theories into practical effect and his lamentable failure. Altogether this book is intellectually stimulating and it certainly is singular in form and method. One is surprised to find Mr. Howells in his *Questionable Shapes* entering the field of psychical phenomena and the semi-supernatural. But the reality of his men and women is only enhanced by the fact that they seem to shiver at the borders of ghostland. The tales that make up this book are really intensely human and the workmanship is of the best.

Turning from fiction to biography, we find only three or four books of serious interest. Mary King Waddington's *Letters of a Diplomat's Wife* has been rightly described as a delightful footnote to contemporary history. Madame Waddington was American by birth, the daughter of a President of Columbia College in New York, the wife of the M. Waddington who for ten years represented France at the Court of St. James and was the French Ambassador Extraordinary at the crowning of the Tsar. Her letters were evidently not written with any thought of future publication: but though they are intimate, they are never indiscreet. They give in a charmingly light and feminine way, without the slightest conceit or self-glorification, clear glimpses of Queen Victoria, of several royal personages on the Continent, and of both the official and domestic life of an ambassador's wife. Madame Waddington had a sense of humour and was an acute observer: moreover, she knew how to write familiarly, without ill-nature and always with picturesqueness. As far removed as possible from this book's talk of distinguished people is the simple little autobiography called *The Story of My Life*, by Helen Keller. Helen, it will be remembered, has been blind, deaf and dumb from early infancy. Through the devotion of a teacher who has almost dedicated her life to the work, Helen has not merely learned to read and write and even to speak imperfectly, but has acquired all the varied knowledge now demanded from a college student and entered Radcliffe, the so-called woman's annex of Harvard University. She tells her own story ingeniously, and its touching quality is heightened by the fact that she writes, not as one in affliction but with the light-heartedness of a cheerful girlhood. The letters from her teacher, Miss Sullivan, describing Helen's education, have a peculiar interest as throwing light on the processes by which even under almost insuperable difficulties a child's attention and imagination may be held and awakened. The biography of *William Ellery Channing* is a sympathetic account of a forerunner of modern liberal Unitarianism in America written by one of the most brilliant Unitarian preachers of our day, Dr. John White Chadwick; it has the force of earnest conviction and touches with the vigour of a radical thinker several present-day problems. The *Autobiography of Joseph Le Conte* is informal and colloquial; as a scientist and evolutionist Le Conte was in the first rank of American scholars; his personal adventures in Georgia and California were unusual and often amusing; his narrative is frank and readable. The centenary of Emerson's birth has, as was predicted, called out numerous review and magazine articles, some of them really worthy of permanent preservation; and the issue of the first volume of the "Centenary Edition of Emerson's Works" includes a brief but interesting account by Dr. Emerson of his father's life and work.

Industrial, political and economic topics are dealt with in books whose increasing number shows the earnestness of public interest in their direction. Mr. John Graham Brooks' *The Social Unrest* is a convincingly effective presentation of the ideas and aspirations of the working classes. Mr. W. J. Ghent's social satire, *Our Benevolent Feudalism*, argues, half in jest, half in earnest, that modern industrial kings are establishing a feudal rule in which the hand workers are to be the serfs. We dealt with this subject fully in our issue of 21 February. Mr. E. S. Meade's *Trust Finance* is one of half a dozen books which leave the feeling that a satisfactory treatise on trusts remains to be written. Professor W. E. B. DuBois' *The Soul of Black Folk* is an eloquent plea for his own race by a negro teacher and sociologist, a book whose bitterness of tone may be forgiven because of its sincerity and its attempt to secure for the negro what President Roosevelt in speaking publicly on the race-question lately called "a square deal". *American Diplomacy in the Orient* by Mr. John W. Foster, formerly Secretary of State, has obviously important bearings on international questions of moment; it is largely occupied with an account from close, personal knowledge of the origin and progress of American expansion within the last few years.

A Fight for the City, by Alfred Hodder, is something more than an account of District Attorney Jerome's sensational and victorious political campaign against Tammany corruption in New York City two years ago next autumn; it is a valuable study of the reasons which from time to time lead the voting populace of the great city deliberately to place themselves under a rule they know to be venal. Mr. Hodder was Mr. Jerome's private secretary during the campaign and writes with full knowledge; he also gives evidence of trained literary skill and of subtlety in the study of motives and political under-currents.

For This Week's Books see page 214.

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The Wessex of Romance (Wilkinson Sherren). Chapman and Hall. 3s. 6d. net.
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Sidelights on Convict Life (George Griffiths). Long. 6s.
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The Call of the Wild (Jack London). Heinemann. 6s.
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Johanna (B. M. Croker). Methuen. 6s.
No One to Blame (Airam). Drane. 6s.

HISTORY.

- Memoirs of George Elers (Lord Monson and George Leveson Gower). Heinemann. 12s. net.

NATURAL HISTORY AND SPORT.

- The Natural History of Animals (J. R. Ainsworth Davis. 2 vols.). Gresham Publishing Company. 7s.
The Naturalist in La Plata (W. H. Hudson). Dent. 5s. net.

THEOLOGY.

- The New but True Life of the Carpenter (Amos). Wright. 4s. 6d. net.
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- North Devon and North Cornwall (G. S. Ward). Dulau. 3s. 6d. net.
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Mettle of the Pasture, The (James Lane-Allen). Macmillan. 6s.
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Submarine Warfare Past, Present, and Future (Herbert C. Fyfe). Grant Richards. 7s. 6d. net.
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THE fifth ordinary general meeting of the share-
holders of the Houlder Line, Limited, was held on Tuesday at the Great
Eastern Hotel, Bishopsgate Street, Mr. Ebenezer Cayford in the chair.

The Secretary (Mr. J. S. Siver) read the notice calling the meeting and the
auditors' report.

The Chairman said: I have pleasure in submitting for your consideration and
approval the report and accounts for the year 1902, which, doubtless, you desire to
be taken as read. The report which is in your hands shows that, after providing for
insurance, all working and management expenses, fees for the auditors and trustees,
and placing £33,313 3s. 11d. to the credit of the depreciation fund—thus bringing this
fund up to £120,000—there remains a credit to profit and loss of £30,285 16s. 5d.
which, supplemented by the balance brought forward in the last account, totals
£45,510 2s. 6d. After providing a sum of £19,958 9s. 6d. for interest on debentures
and dividend on preference shares, the balance remaining to the credit of profit and
loss is £25,551 13s. 1d., and after paying a dividend on the ordinary shares at the rate
of 5 per cent. per annum, the balance to be carried forward to 1903 account
will be £11,801 13s. Last year I stated that the results for the half-year
just then past were satisfactory; but, although the net profits of the steamers;
voyages for 1902 exceeded those of 1901 by £2,385 14s., yet, towards the
end of last year, outward freights to the River Plate probably touched
the lowest point on record, whilst the total closing of the meat works in
Australia for a good part of the year, owing to the long-continued drought, de-
prived the insulated steamers of a large proportion of their cargoes; and, although
the outlook in Australia is better now, it will, of course, be some time before
meat works there can expect to be again turning out their full output, and as the
supply of tonnage has increased very considerably of late years the surplus of
tonnage over the cargo to be carried will necessarily induce great competi-
tion amongst the Australian liners. After fully considering the general out-
look, your directors concluded that it was wiser to largely increase the
depreciation fund, which, if their suggestion is adopted, will amount
to £120,000, and to add £3,233 3s. 4d. to the insurance fund. For the same reason they have preferred to recommend the payment of a
dividend of 5 per cent. per annum, and to carry forward the sum of £11,801 13s.
rather than pay a larger dividend and reduce this amount, and they feel sure that
the shareholders will agree that they have adopted the wiser course. I now beg to
move the adoption of the report and balance-sheet, and that a dividend be declared
on the 55,000 ordinary shares of the Company at the rate of 5 per cent. per
annum for the half year ended December 31 last, making 5 per cent. for the year,
and that such dividend be paid forthwith.

Mr. C. F. Hartridge seconded the resolution, which was agreed to unanimously.
Messrs. Augustus Frederick Houlder and Frank Henry Houlder were re-elected
directors.

On the motion of Mr. T. M. Rose, seconded by Mr. Walsham, a cordial vote of
thanks was passed to the Chairman and directors.
The Chairman, in reply, said, I am very much obliged to you on behalf of my
co-directors and myself for the kind expression of confidence that you have passed
in again accepting our results. I can only tell you that we give to this business the
same attention that we gave in past days. We have one source of regret, and
that is that we are not being led by our old and valued friend, Mr. Edwin
Savory Houlder, who, as you know, passed away two years ago; but we are
endeavouring to tread in his footsteps, so as to do the utmost for the success of the
Company. I may mention that out of the total ordinary share capital of £275,000
I hold proxies to the extent of £457,225, or 93.53 per cent. The meeting then
separated.

THE CROWN REEF GOLD MINING CO., LTD.

JOHANNESBURG, TRANSVAAL.

From the Directors' Quarterly Report.

EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

On the basis of 110 Stamps for Quarter ending 30th June, 1903.
54,849 Tons Milled.

EXPENDITURE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per Ton.
To Mining Expenses	£34,462 13 9	£0 12 6'796
Drifts and Wines	593 10 3	0 0 2'598
Crushing and Sorting	2,231 0 8	0 0 9'762
Transport	986 5 3	0 0 4'315
Milling	6,949 17 10	0 2 6'410
Cyanide	9 2 1 8	0 3 6'322
Slimes	1,557 6 7	0 0 6'814
General Charges	7,006 18 4	0 0 6'659
Less cost of working in old Levels	£63,460 0 4	1 3 1'678
	13,597 8 9	0 4 11'497
Cost of working old Levels	49,863 11 7	0 18 2'181
Gold Realisation Charges	13,597 8 9	
Additions to Plant	1,762 2 0	
	3,736 2 1	
Profit	68,958 4 5	1 5 1'737
	68,731 11 10	1 5 0'745
	£137,689 16 3	£2 10 2'482

By Gold Accounts—

REVENUE.

	Value.	Value per ton.
20,588'950 fine ozs. from Mill	£87,456 5 11	£1 11 10'678
10,836'182 fine ozs. from Cyanide	46,508 4 3	0 16 9'315
994'780 fine ozs. from Slimes	4,225 6 1	0 1 6'488
32,419'852 ozs.	£137,689 16 3	£2 10 2'482
	£137,689 16 3	£2 10 2'482

The Tonnage mined for the quarter was .. 62,480 tons, cost £34,389 6 0 = £0 11 0'007 per ton.
Less waste rock sorted .. 7,762 "

Decrease in mill bins .. 54,718 " Value 73 7 9
131 " Cost £34,462 13 9 = £0 12 6'796 per ton.
54,849 "

The declared output for the quarter was 32,419'852 fine ozs. = 11'821 dwts. per ton milled.

The following are the details of the work done in the Upper Levels during the past quarter:

Tons recovered .. 8,199 Cost £8,763 6 2
Cost per ton on milled tonnage basis equals .. £2'345d.
The general expenses for Winding, Sorting, Transport, Milling, &c., are equal to 12.915d. per ton. Thus showing the total cost of handling the rock recovered from the Upper Levels equivalent to 4s. 11'497d. per ton milled.

The following are the particulars of the development work done for the past quarter:

6TH, 7TH, 8TH LEVELS.—	
Crosscutting	121½ feet.
9TH LEVEL.—	
Driving on Main Reef Leader	49½ feet.
Crosscutting	77½ feet.
Total	248½ feet.

The tonnage of Ore exposed by the above works amounted to 3,826 tons.

ROSE DEEP, LIMITED.

From the DIRECTORS' QUARTERLY REPORT to 30th June, 1903.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 20,319'312 ozs.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis 7'403 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per ton milled.
To Mining Expenses	£29,178 17 2	£0 10 7'574
Milling Expenses	6,533 8 7	0 2 4'505
Cyaniding Expenses	9,076 11 4	0 2 11'311
General Expenses	2,911 9 10	0 1 0'729
Head Office Expenses	1,893 12 11	0 0 8'279
Working Profit	48,593 19 10	0 17 8'459
	36,624 4 9	0 13 4'127
	£85,218 4 7	£1 11 0'586
Cr.		
By Gold Account	£85,218 4 7	£1 11 0'586
Dr.		
To Net Profit		£16,812 0 0
Cr.		
By Balance, Working Profit, brought down	£36,624 4 9	
Interest	197 15 3	
	36,822 0 0	

NOTE.—The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits which has been imposed by the Government of the Transvaal has not been allowed for in the above figures.

The Capital Expenditure for the quarter has amounted to £5,953 12s. 9d.
A Special General Meeting of Shareholders has been convened to be held in the Board Room, Exploration Building, on the 8th July, 1903, for the purpose of altering and amending the Company's Articles of Association in accordance with the particulars contained in the Circular issued to Shareholders with notice convening the Meeting.

An Interim Dividend (No. 4) of 10 per cent. was declared on 16th June, 1903, for the period ending 30th June, 1903, and will be payable on or about 4th August, 1903, from the London and Johannesburg Offices, to Shareholders registered in the Company's Books on 30th June, 1903. Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer will receive payment of Coupon No. 4 attached thereto on presentation at the London Office of the Company, or at the Office of the Compagnie Française de Mines d'Or et de l'Afrique du Sud, Rue Taibout, Paris.

CROWN DEEP, LIMITED.

From the DIRECTORS' QUARTERLY REPORT to June 30, 1903.

Total Yield in Fine Gold from all sources 23,197'972 ozs.
Total Yield in Fine Gold per ton on tonnage milled basis 7'532 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per Ton Milled.
To Mining Expenses	£34,171 9 2	£0 11 1'545
Milling Expenses	7,519 11 6	0 4 5'387
Cyaniding Expenses	11,027 2 11	0 3 9'439
General Expenses	2,415 2 11	0 0 9'438
Head Office Expenses	1,826 1 3	0 0 7'136
Working Profit	57,559 7 9	0 18 8'947
	39,573 6 1	0 12 10'656
	£97,132 13 10	£1 11 7'603
Cr.		
By Gold Account	£97,132 13 10	£1 11 7'603
Dr.		
To Net Profit		£39,911 8 6
Cr.		
By Balance Working Profit, brought down	£39,573 6 1	
Interest	338 2 5	
	£39,911 8 6	

NOTE.—The 10 per cent. Tax on Profits which has been imposed by the Government of the Transvaal has not been allowed for in the above figures.

The Capital Expenditure for the quarter has amounted to £2,044 15s. 3d.
A Special General Meeting of Shareholders has been convened to be held in the Board Room, Exploration Building, on the 8th July, 1903, for the purpose of altering and amending the Company's Articles of Association in accordance with the particulars contained in the Circular issued to Shareholders with the notice convening the meeting.

An Interim Dividend (No. 4) of 20 per cent. was declared on 16th June, 1903, for the period ending 30th June, 1903, and will be payable on or about the 4th August, 1903, from the London and Johannesburg Offices to Shareholders, registered in the Company's Books on 30th June, 1903.

Holders of Share Warrants to Bearer will receive payment of Coupon No. 4 attached thereto, on presentation at the London Office of the Company, or at the Office of the Compagnie Française de Mines d'Or et de l'Afrique du Sud, 30 Rue Taibout, Paris.

BONANZA, LIMITED.

MANAGER'S REPORT for the Month of June, 1903.

Total Yield in fine gold from all sources 6,550'7 87 ozs.
Total Yield in fine gold from all sources, per ton milled 16'03 6 dwts.

WORKING EXPENDITURE AND REVENUE.

On a basis of 8,170 tons milled.

Dr.	Cost.	Cost per Ton.
To Mining	£6,890 1 4	£0 16 10'401
Crushing and Sorting	508 19 0	0 1 2'950
Milling	1,169 17 6	0 2 10'366
Cyaniding Sands	1,034 7 8	0 2 6'386
Slimes	436 7 1	0 1 0'818
Sundry Head Office Expenses, &c.	211 11 5	0 0 6'215
Development Redemption	10,251 4 0	1 5 1'136
	817 0 0	0 2 0'000
Profit	11,068 4 0	1 7 1'136
	16,505 19 6	2 0 4'876
	£27,574 3 6	£3 7 6'018
By Gold Account		
Mill Gold	£15,126 3 6	£1 17 0'343
Cyanide Gold	12,223 0 0	1 9 11'059
Interest Account	27,349 3 6	3 6 11'402
	225 0 0	0 0 6'610
	£27,574 3 6	£3 7 6'018

Expenditure under this head for the month amounts to £1,183 8s. 9d.

An Interim Dividend of 50 per cent., or 10s. per Share, was declared by the Board of Directors on the 15th June, 1903, and is payable to all Shareholders registered in the books of the Company at the close of business on the 30th June, 1903, and to holders of Coupon No. 9 attached to Share Warrants to Bearer. The dividend will be payable on 4th August, 1903.

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